ESSENTIALS
OF
LATIN GRAMMAR

BLACKBURN

GINN, HEATH & CO.

THE

ESSENTIALS
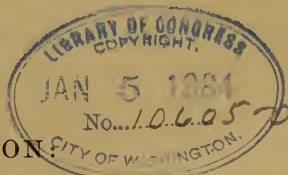
OF

LATIN GRAMMAR.

BY

F. A. BLACKBURN.

Nobis prima sit virtus perspicuitas, propria verba, rectus ordo ; ... nihil
neque desit neque superfluat. — *Quint. Inst.* viii. 2, 22.

BOSTON:
PUBLISHED BY GINN, HEATH, & CO.
1883.

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PREFACE.

———◆◇◆———

THIS book is the outgrowth of several years' experience in teaching Latin to beginners. Portions of it were drawn up some years ago for the use of my own classes; the success that has followed the use of them has led to the completion of the lacking portions and the publication of the whole.

The objects kept in view in compiling the book were two: without omitting essentials, to make a book small enough to be mastered by a beginner, and to arrange the principles of grammar contained in it as systematically as possible, thus making them easy to learn and easy to keep. The first object I have tried to secure by studied conciseness of statement and by the omission of all that Latin has in common with English, e.g., definitions of the parts of speech, kinds of sentences, subject, object, etc.; rules for the use of adverbs, conjunctions, and the like. The object of these omissions, however, was not brevity alone, but rather simplicity. I have assumed that the book will be put into the hands of pupils who have already studied English Grammar, and I believe that loss of time is only a part of the harm of requiring a pupil to relearn a grammatical definition or principle couched in new words. The book will not be found suitable, therefore, for pupils who have not mastered the elements of grammar, unless the teacher shall supplement it with the needed definitions.

The second point aimed at is partly a matter of grammatical system, partly of typography. Whether my classification of the facts and principles of the Latin tongue is any help to the pupil in learning them and keeping them, is a question for the teacher who may use the

book. The arrangement of these facts and principles on the page, however, will commend itself, I hope, to all. The coarser print contains those portions of the grammar of the language, which, in my judgment, should be absolutely mastered; the smallest amount to which memorizing can be limited. The notes contain illustrations, explanations, and those limitations of grammatical principles which are the outgrowth of usage, and which should be gradually learned by daily reference in the course of reading a Latin author. Much that is in the notes should be memorized; how much, is a question left to the judgment of the teacher, and the answer will depend on circumstances : the amount of time at the disposal of the class, the age and character of the pupils, the requirements of the college they have in view, etc. The duplicate numbering serves to connect the notes to the statements they illustrate or explain, and is simple enough, I hope, to save the vexation and loss of time incurred in trying to find a reference in a book systematically sub-divided and classified. The numbering answers the same purpose as paging: convenience of reference. A bracketed reference refers to a note ; such a reference, given orally, may be called simply "*note*," *e.g.* [142] may be read " note 142."

It is not claimed, of course, that so small a book contains a complete exposition of the principles of the Latin tongue, or a complete history of the growth of the forms and usage of Latin speech, and the book is not intended for those who pursue the study of the language so far. Such should provide themselves with larger and fuller treatises. It is intended for that class of pupils who study Latin in school and college for the training it gives in clearness of thought and exactness of speech, but whose tastes or plans of life and work do not lead them to the higher and more attractive study of the life and growth of the language. I have, therefore, omitted discussions of the origin and growth of forms and idioms, or of the development of syntactical usages, as well as all illustrations drawn from comparative grammar. I have tried to include, however, all the grammatical information needed for a high school or for the early years of a college;

to the point, in fact, where the better colleges now give the pupil the option of continuing classical studies, or substituting other branches more to his taste. I have tried, moreover, to so arrange the facts and usages of Latin speech, that the pupil who carries his studies beyond the limit of the book, shall not be obliged to unlearn, but only to supplement, what he has already mastered.

It is proper to add that I put forth no claim to original research, my object being to make a school-book. If the plan and arrangement do not justify its publication, there is nothing else in it to do so. I have not tried, moreover, in seeking for the best and clearest arrangement, to avoid what has been already used by others. I have freely taken from every source, whatever, in the way of expression or classification, seemed good for my purpose. The teacher who is familiar with the various Latin grammars issued within the last twenty years, will find much taken directly from them; more than I can acknowledge in detail. On questions of fact and usage, I have depended almost entirely on Roby's Latin Grammar, and have drawn freely on his citations from Latin authors, for illustrative examples. His full collections of illustrative words and sentences have saved a great amount of labor that would have been needed to find appropriate illustrations.

I shall be grateful for criticism from any source, especially for corrections or suggestions from teachers who may have occasion to test the value of the book by actual use with classes.

<div align="right">F. A. BLACKBURN.</div>

San Francisco, Cal., *Feb.* 17, 1883.

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ESSENTIALS OF LATIN GRAMMAR.

PART I. — SOUNDS.

1. Alphabet and Pronunciation.

The Latin alphabet has no **w**; otherwise it is like the English. **1**

The vowels are **a, e, i, o, u.** They are sounded, **2** when long, like the same vowels in the English words, *father, they, pique, ore, rude.* When short, they have the same sound, but more shortly uttered; nearly like the same vowels in *half, them, pick, obey, full.*

---

[1] **K** is found in Old Latin, but is rare in the later language, being replaced by **c.** **Q** is used for **c** before **v.** **I** was used for both **i** and **j,** and **u** for both **u** and **v**; but they are often distinguished in modern print, except that **u** is used for **v** after **q, g,** and **s.** (For the sake of exactness, they are distinguished in this book, **j** and **v** being always consonants, **i** and **u** vowels.)

Y and **z** are, strictly speaking, not Latin letters, but were borrowed from the Greek. They are found only in Greek words.

[2] Long vowels are marked **ā, ē, ī, ō, ū** ; short, **ă, ĕ, ĭ, ŏ, ŭ.** Sometimes in manuscripts and inscriptions long vowels are indicated by writing them double. For long **ī, ei** is written in such cases (not **ii**).

EUPHONIC CHANGES OF VOWELS.

(*a*) Before final consonants, except **s**, long vowels are often shortened.

(*b*) Before **ns** and **nf** short vowels are lengthened.

(*c*) The short vowels are often "weakened," sometimes from a shifting of the accent, often without any apparent reason. The tendency in vowel-weakening is from "open" to "close." (See 3.) Thus **a** weakens to **o** and **u,** or to **e** and **i**; **o** weakens to **u,** **e** to **i.** Less often **o** weakens to **e, u** to **i.**

(*d*) The same weakening sometimes takes place in long vowels and diphthongs, but rarely.

(*e*) This tendency is checked and modified by various causes, a common one being the character of the following sound. Thus the open vowels (see 3) are favorites before two consonants, the close ones before single mutes; the open vowels before liquids and spirants, the close ones before nasals and **s.**

3　　A, e, o, are *open* vowels; i, u, *close* vowels.

4　　The diphthongs are made up of an open vowel-sound, followed by a close one. Each sound is uttered, but the two are run into one syllable in pronunciation.

5　　The diphthongs are **ae, oe, ei, au, eu.** **Ae** is sounded like English *ay* (= *yes*); **oe** like *oi* in *toil;* **au** like *ou* in *loud;* **ei** as in *eight;* **eu** as in *feud.*

6　　The consonants are sounded as in English, except that

7　　　　C and g are always "hard," as in *cave, give.*

8　　　　J sounds like *y* in *young.*

9　　　　T sounds like *t* in *tongue.*

10　　　　S sounds like *s* in *sin.*

11　　　　V sounds like *w* in *win.*

---

[3] So named from the fact that the organs of speech are more open, or less open in uttering them. A is more open than e or o; the latter are, therefore, sometimes called "medial" vowels.

[4] In Old Latin is found the complete schedule of diphthongs, **ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou.** In the later language **ai** becomes **ae;** **ei** usually becomes ē or ī; **oi** becomes **oe;** **ou** becomes ū. In some cases this weakening tendency has gone still further, weakening **ae** and **oe** also to ē and ū. The simple vowels which thus replace the older diphthongs then become subject to the same weakening tendency as single vowels.

[6] **H** is sounded as in English, but seems to have originally had a stronger sound, as it stands in place of an older guttural mute. Before s and t it changes or reverts to c.

M and s in Old Latin seem to have been but slightly sounded, and, when final, are often dropped.

Y and z of Greek words are generally sounded as in English, but it is supposed that y had the sound of French u.

The compounds **ch, th, ph,** are also found in Greek words. It is customary to sound them as in English *chasm, thin, phase,* although it is believed that the Romans sounded them in such a way as to give each letter its own sound; *i.e.,* as c, t, and p, followed by an h-sound.

The consonants are classified as follows : — **12**

	Mutes.		Semi-vowels.			
	Breathed.	Voiced.	Nasal.	Liquid.	Spirant.	Sibilant.
Guttural . . .					h	
Linguo-palatal .	c (k, q)	g	n		j	
Linguo-dental .	t	d	n	l, r		s
Labio-dental . .					f	
Labial	p	b	m		v	

X (called a double consonant) is a short way of writing *cs*. **13**

---

[12] The name "voiced" is given to those sounds, the utterance of which is attended by a vibration of the vocal chords, thus making "voice"; the others, consisting of mere expulsion of breath, are called "breathed." Of the semi-vowels, **f** and **s** are breathed; the others are voice-letters, as are also all the vowels. The names "guttural," etc., refer to the organs used in uttering the sounds.

Qv and **gv** are treated as single consonants by the Latins, like single **c** and **g**. In many words the spelling varies between **qv** and **c**.

EUPHONIC CHANGES OF CONSONANTS.

(*a*) The sounds of **j** and **v** are so much like those of **i** and **u** that they are not only represented by the same letters, but, in poetry, are sometimes interchanged. Thus **abiete** becomes **abjete**; **Gajus** becomes **Gaïus**; **cui** becomes **cvi**; **silvae** becomes **siluae**, etc. **V** regularly becomes **u** when brought before a consonant; sometimes **qv** becomes **cu**, but usually **c**.

(*b*) Doubled consonants at the end of a word are not found in Latin, but one is dropped. Often, also, in the middle of a word, one consonant is written where the derivation or formation would require two.

(*c*) Between two vowels **s** usually changes to **r**, and **h** and **v** are often dropped. **J** sometimes drops before **i**, and **s** sometimes changes to **r** in other positions than between vowels.

Consonant sounds are often modified when brought together in inflection or word-formation. Usually the preceding sound adapts itself more or less fully to the following. Thus:

(*d*) Before **s**, **t** and **d** become **s**. [ss thus formed is often changed to **s**. See (*b*) above.]

---

2. Quantity and Accent.

A syllable is long

14   (*a*) When it contains a long vowel or a diphthong.

15   (*b*) When its vowel, naturally short, is followed
         by two consonants.

(*e*) Before a liquid, **n** is often changed to that liquid.

(*f*) In the prepositions **ab, ad, ob, sub, com, in,** this tendency goes much further, and the final sound of these words is assimilated to various sounds. (Assimilation of a preceding to a following sound also occurs in many other cases, which cannot be enumerated or classified in an elementary work.)

In cases (*d*), (*e*), and (*f*), there is entire assimilation of the preceding sound to the following one. In the following, partial assimilation takes place.

(*g*) Before a breath-consonant, the voice-mutes change to the corresponding breath-mutes. But assimilation often takes place, especially of the final mutes of prepositions, and **dt** and **tt** often change to **st, ss,** or **s.** **G, h, gv,** and **qv** change to **c** before a following **s,** and make **x,** *i.e.,* **cs. Bs** is generally written, but is always pronounced as **ps.**

(*h*) Before a mute the nasals become of the same character as the mute, **m** before labials, **n** before palatals and dentals. (**N** has two sounds, as in English ; that of a palatal nasal (Eng. *sing*) before palatal mutes, and that of a dental nasal (Eng. *sin*) elsewhere.) **M** before **s** is changed to **n** or assimilated, but in some cases a parasitical **p** is inserted between **m** and **s ;** *e.g.,* **hiemps** (for **hiems**), **sumpsi** (for **sumsi**), etc.

(*i*) In combinations of consonants difficult to utter, one is often dropped. (The changes given here are not always made in writing, and it is not easy to decide how fully they were made in speaking. Perhaps it would be the wisest course for a beginner to pronounce the words as he finds them written.)

[14] Whether any particular vowel is long or short, must often be learned by consulting a lexicon, but vowels formed by contraction are long.

[15] A mute or **f** followed by **l** or **r** does not make a long syllable, but a common one. See 18. **X** and Greek **z** are two consonants, and **qv, gv** are single consonants. See [12]. To make a long syllable, one of the consonants must be in the same word with the preceding short vowel ; a

A syllable is short
　(*a*) When it contains a short vowel.　　**16**
　(*b*) When its vowel, naturally long, is followed by　**17**
　　　another vowel.

A syllable is common
　[*i.e.*, long or short at the option of the writer]
　(*a*) When its vowel, naturally short, is followed　**18**
　　　by a mute or f with l or r.

---

final short vowel seldom makes a long syllable with two consonants of the following word.　**Ch, th, ph** also are single consonants in Greek, and do not make a long syllable, though two consonants are used in Latin to represent them.

[17] An interposed **h** has no effect, and the rule applies to diphthongs as well as to single vowels.　But in a few cases a vowel remains long or common, though followed by another vowel; viz.: —

(*a*) The genitive singular endings, **āī, ĕ̄ī, ĭus,** and the dative singular pronoun **ĕ̄ī.**

(*b*) The syllable **fī** in the verb **fīo,** except before -**ĕr.**

(*c*) Proper names in -**āĭŭs,** -**ēĭŭs** [poetical forms for -**ājus,** -**ējŭs.**　See [12] (*a*)].

(*d*) **ēheu, dīŭs, Dĭānă, ŏ̄he, Rhēa.**

(*e*) Many Greek words, which usually keep their own quantity.

[18] The following combinations occur: **pr, br, cr, gr, tr, dr, fr; pl, cl, fl.**　But both consonants must be in the same word with the preceding vowel; in different words (or in different parts of a compound) they make a long syllable.　In Greek words, a mute followed by a nasal may make a short syllable with a preceding short vowel.

(The vowels of 15, 17, and 18 are often called long, short, or common *by position*.　The expression, though convenient, is inexact as regards long and common syllables; for the syllable, not the vowel, is long or common. Such vowels should have their short sound; but a *long* vowel before two consonants (*e.g.*, before **ns** or **nf**) should, of course, have its long sound. In many cases, however, there is little or no evidence to show the natural quantity of the vowel; but the pupil is more likely to be right in sounding it short.)

The accent in Latin is

19   (*a*) In words of two syllables, on the first syllable.
20   (*b*) In words of more than two syllables, on the
                  penult, if that syllable is long; otherwise,
                  on the *antepenult*.

[19] The rules for the accent of Latin words are given by the Latin grammarians, who add also the following statements:—

(*a*) Prepositions, when standing directly before their nouns, or before an adjective or genitive limiting their nouns, have no accent, but are pronounced as one word with the following. In other positions they are accented, with the exception of **cum** when it is attached enclitically to the ablative of pronoun forms.

(*b*) The enclitic particles **-ne, -ve, -ce, -met, -pte, -dum** (also **-qve** when it means *and*, and **cum, inde** and **qvando** when attached to a preceding word) have no accent, but cause the accent to fall on the last syllable of the word to which they are attached; *e.g.*, **itáqve,** *and thus;* **éxinde,** *thenceforth;* **écqvando, manédum,** etc.

(*c*) The accent may stand on the last syllable, or on a short penult, if a syllable has been lost; *e.g.*, **vidén** (for **vidésne**), **illíc** (for **illíce**), **nostrás** (for **nostrátis**), **Vergíli** (for **Vergílii**), etc.

It is customary also, in words of several syllables, to put a secondary accent on the second or third syllable before the accented syllable.

[20] *Penult,* last syllable but one; *antepenult,* last but two.

PART II. — FORMS.

Inflection.

Inflection is a change in the form of a word to **21** denote some modification of its meaning or to show its relation to other words. Nouns, adjectives, pronouns and verbs are inflected in Latin.

Inflection in Latin, as in English, consists either in **22** a change in the vowel of the word or in the addition of syllables; far more often the latter. Sometimes both methods are used.

Nouns have inflections to denote *number* and *case*. **23**

Adjectives have inflections to denote *gender*, *num-* **24** *ber* and *case*.

Pronouns, when used substantively, have the in- **25** flections of nouns; when used adjectively, those of adjectives.

Verbs have inflections to denote *tense*, *mood*, *person*, **26** *number* and *voice*.

Stem and Suffixes; Theme and Endings.

Inflection, in Latin, usually consists in adding **27** certain syllables to the ground-form or basis of the inflected word. This ground-form or basis is called a *stem*, and the added syllables are called *suffixes*.

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[21] *E.g.*, **servus,** slave; **servi,** slave's; **pastor,** shepherd; **pastores,** shepherds; **ama-s,** love-st; **ama-t,** love-s; **ama-vit,** love-d; etc.

The inflection of nouns, adjectives and pronouns is often called *declension;* that of verbs, *conjugation*.

28 When the stem ends in a vowel and the suffix begins with a vowel, the resulting contraction often obscures both stem-ending and suffix. For convenience of memorizing we therefore divide inflected words not only into stem and suffix but also into *theme* and *ending*.

29 The *theme* is that part of the word which remains unchanged in inflection. The *endings* are the letters or syllables added to the theme to make the various forms of the word.

Forms of Nouns and Adjectives.

GENDER.

30 There are three genders: *masculine, feminine, neuter.*

31 Gender, in Latin, is fixed either by the meaning or by the form. When fixed by the meaning, it is called *natural* gender; by the form, *grammatical.*

  Rules of natural gender:—

32
33 (a) { Names of *male* beings / Names of *rivers* and *mountains* } are masculine.

34
35 (b) { Names of *female* beings / Names of *trees* and *plants* / Names of *countries, towns* and *islands* } are feminine.
36

37
38 (c) { *Indeclinable* nouns / *Phrases* or *clauses* used as nouns } are neuter.

39
40 (d) { Names that may be used of *either* sex / Some names of *beasts, birds, fishes* and *insects* } are common.

---

[29] The theme is always the same as the stem with its final vowel removed, and the endings consequently contain the final vowel of the stem and the suffixes, both often obscured by contraction. If the stem ends in a consonant, the stem and theme are the same, and the endings are the simple suffixes.

[31] The rules of grammatical gender will be given with the various declensions.

PERSON, NUMBER, AND CASE.

In *person* and *number* the Latin is like the English. **41**

There are five cases in common use; viz.: *nom-* **42**
inative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative. Two
other cases, a *locative* and a *vocative*, are found in
a few words.

The nominative corresponds to the English nom- **43**
inative, being the case of the subject.

The genitive corresponds to the English possessive. **44**

The dative corresponds to the English indirect **45**
objective.

The accusative corresponds to the English direct **46**
objective.

The vocative corresponds to the English nominative **47**
in direct address.

The ablative and locative have no corresponding **48**
cases in English.

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[33] **Hadria,** the *Adriatic*, is masculine, like names of rivers.

The gender of *rivers, trees, countries*, etc., is the result of the simplicity
of primitive thought and conception, which gave life and feeling to inani-
mate objects. In many of these, however, the gender is fixed by the form,
and they come under the rules of grammatical gender. In most words,
also, there is no contradiction of form and meaning.

[37] Strictly speaking, the neuters of 37 and 38 fix their gender neither
by meaning nor by form, but they are put here for convenience. Words
quoted only for their form, without regard to meaning, come under the
head of indeclinable nouns; *e.g.*, **pater dixi,** *I said "pater"*; **pater est**
dissyllabum, *"pater" is dissyllabic.*

[39] Common; *i.e.*, sometimes *masculine*, sometimes *feminine*.

[40] But in most of these sex is not thought of, and they are either
masculine or take grammatical gender.

Words borrowed from the Greek keep the gender they have in that
language.

49   The nominative and vocative are sometimes called *direct* cases, the others *oblique*. The oblique cases are often rendered into English by prepositions. The genitive is most often rendered by *of ;* the dative, by *to* or *for ;* the locative, by *at* or *in ;* the ablative, by *from, by, in* or *with*.

The Declensions.

50   Nouns and adjectives are inflected by adding to the stem the proper case-suffixes. As these suffixes differ in certain cases and are often obscured in form by contraction with the final vowel of the stem, we have six forms of declension, as the stem ends in a consonant or in one of the vowels, **a, e, i, o, u.**

51   These six forms fall naturally into two groups; viz.:

     A. Stems in an open vowel (**a, e, o**).

     B. Stems in a consonant or a close vowel (**i, u**).

---

[49] The details of the use of the cases must be learned from the Syntax. Only enough is given here to enable the pupil to master elementary exercises.

[51] These groups are distinguished by different case-suffixes in certain cases; most clearly in the genitive, where A has sg. **-ī**, pl. **-rŭm**; B, sg. **-ĭs**, pl. **-ŭm**.

Nouns and adjectives are usually classified into declensions according to the ending of the genitive singular; and lexicons give, therefore, not the stem, but the nominative and genitive singular. That the pupil may be able to refer each word to its proper declension, the usual method of classification is here added.

First Declension, gen. sg. ending **-ae** = **a**-stems.
Second   "   "   "   "   **-ī**   = **o**-stems.
Third   "   "   "   "   **-ĭs** = consonant and **i**-stems.
Fourth   "   "   "   "   **-ūs** = **u**-stems.
Fifth   "   "   "   "   **-ēī** = **e**-stems.

The ending of the genitive singular, therefore, distinguishes all vowel-stems except those in **-i.** Rules for distinguishing **i**-stems from consonant-

THE *A*-DECLENSION. STEMS ENDING IN -*A*.

The theme of any a-stem may be found by dropping | **52**
the ending of the genitive singular, -ae. The stem
is found by adding a to the theme.

The final a of the stem combines with the case- | **53**
suffixes to make the following case-endings, by adding
which to the theme any a-stem may be declined : —

Sg.	N. -ă	Pl. N. -ae	E.g.,	mens ă	mens ae
	G. -ae	G. -ārŭm		mens ae	mens ārŭm
	D. -ae	D. -īs		mens ae	mens īs	**54**
	Ac. -ăm	Ac. -ās		mens ăm	mens ās
	Ab. -ā	Ab. -īs		mens ā	mens īs

The locative singular of a-stems has the ending -ae. | **55**
The gender of a-stems is feminine. | **56**

stems, by the forms of the nominative and genitive singular, will be found
under the i-declension.

[54] The uncontracted ending -āī is sometimes found in the genitive
singular; also -um for ārŭm in the genitive plural.

Familia, in combination with **pater, mater, filius,** or **filia,** sometimes
has the ending -ās in the genitive singular. The same ending is found in
a few other words in old Latin.

Dea and filia usually form the dative and ablative plural with the end-
ing -ābŭs; a few others rarely.

In poetry, words borrowed from the Greek often keep Greek endings in
the singular. The following are found : nom. -ē, -ās, -ēs ; gen. -ēs ; acc.
-ān, -ēn ; abl. -ē. But the regular Latin endings are common.

Various old endings are found in inscriptions and old Latin ; viz. : gen.
sg. -aes ; dat. sg. -ai (diphthong ?) ; abl. sg. -ād (the original abl. ending) ;
nom. pl. -as ; dat. and abl. pl. -eis (another spelling of -īs. See [2]). In
a few instances stems in -ia contract -iīs in the dat. and abl. pl. to -īs.

[56] The rules of grammatical gender given with the declensions apply
only to such nouns as do not come under the rules of natural gender,
32–40.

THE *E*-DECLENSION.   STEMS IN -*E*.

57   The theme of any **e**-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, -ēī.   The stem is found by adding **e** to the theme.

The case-endings are : —

Sg. N.	-ēs	*Pl.* N.	-ēs	*E.g.,* di ēs	di ēs
G.	-ēī	G.	-ērŭm	di ēī	di ērŭm
D.	-ēī	D.	-ēbŭs	di ēī	di ēbŭs
Ac.	-ĕm	Ac.	-ēs	di ĕm	di ēs
Ab.	-ē	Ab.	-ēbŭs	di ē	di ēbŭs

58

59   Stems in -e are feminine,

60   But **dies** is usually masc.; **meridies,** always so.

THE *O*-DECLENSION.   STEMS IN -*O*.

61   The theme of any **o**-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, -ī.   The stem is found by adding **o** to the theme.

The case-endings are : —

FOR MASCULINES.

Sg. N.	-ŭs	*Pl.* N.	-ī	*E.g.,* hort ŭs	hort ī
G.	-ī	G.	-ōrŭm	hort ī	hort ōrŭm
D.	-ō	D.	-īs	hort ō	hort īs
Ac.	-ŭm	Ac.	-ōs	hort ŭm	hort ōs
Ab.	-ō	Ab.	-īs	hort ō	hort īs

62

[58] The ending of the genitive and dative singular is commonly -ĕī when the theme ends in a consonant; viz.: in **fides, plebes, res, spes.**

Old or unusual endings are found; viz.: gen. sg. -ēs, -ē, -ī; dat. sg. -ē, -ī. Stems in -e lack the plural except **dies** and **res,** and a few found in the nom. and acc. pl.; viz.: **acies, effigies, facies, series, species, spes;** with **eluvies** (nom.) and **glacies** (acc.). Other forms are cited by grammarians, but not found in literature.

A locative **diē** is found in old Latin, and in certain (so-called) adverbs of time: **postridiē, pridiē,** etc.

FOR NEUTERS.

Sg.		Pl.		E.g.,		
N.	-ŭm	N.	-ă	dōn ŭm	don ă	
G.	-ī	G.	-ōrŭm	don ī	don ōrŭm	
D.	-ō	D.	-īs	don ō	don ĭs	63
Ac.	-ŭm	Ac.	-ă	don ŭm	don ă	
Ab.	-ō	Ab.	-īs	don ō	don īs	

Masculine **o**-stems have a vocative singular with   **64**
the ending **-ĕ.**

The locative singular of **o**-stems has the ending **-ī.**   **65**

Most masculine stems in **-ĕro** drop the endings of   **66**
the nominative and vocative singular, and many of
them syncopate **ĕ** in all the other cases.

Stems in **-io** contract **-iĕ** of the vocative singular   **67**
to **ī**, often also **-iī** of the genitive singular to **ī.**

Deus has no vocative singular. In the plural,   **68**

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[62] The older endings **-ŏs, -ŏm,** are sometimes found for **-ŭs, -ŭm,**
especially after **v**; also **-um** (or, after **v, -om**) for **-ōrum.**

Old endings, found in inscriptions, etc., are gen. sg. **-oe** (?), **-ei** (see [2]);
dat. sg. **-oi**; abl. sg. **-ōd**; nom. pl. **-ēs, -ē, -oe**; also **-ei** (see [2]); dat. and
abl. pl. **-oes, -ōbus** (in **duo** and **ambo**, see [72]).

Nouns borrowed from the Greek sometimes keep Greek endings. The
following are found: nom. sg. masc. **-ŏs**; neut. **-ŏn**; gen. sg. **-ō**; acc. sg.
-ŏn, -ō; nom. pl. masc. **-oe**; gen. pl. **-ōn.** Many Greek words are confused
in their forms, taking, in certain authors, or in certain cases, the endings of
o-stems; at other times, or in other cases, the endings of consonant-stems.

[66] Thus (from the stem **puĕro**) **puer, puĕri, puĕro,** etc.; (from the
stem **agĕro**) **ager, agri, agro,** etc. **Vir** (stem **vīro**) drops the nom. and
voc. sg. endings. In old Latin, however, these endings are sometimes
kept.

[67] The voc. sg. of **Tullius,** for example, is **Tulli.** The accent in
these shortened forms remains unchanged; e.g., **Domíti** (gen. or voc.);
impéri (gen.). See [19], (c). Other cases of stems in **-io** sometimes con-
tract **ii** to **ī.** Stems in **-ājo, -ējo,** when **j** changes to **i** [see [12] (a)], suffer
a similar contraction.

[68] Some editors print **diī** and **diīs** also.

besides the regular forms, it has also nominative **dī,** dative and ablative **dīs.**

69 Stems in **-o** with nominative singular ending **-ŭm** are neuter; others are masculine.

ADJECTIVE-STEMS IN -A AND -O.

70 Adjective-stems in **-a** and **-o** are declined like noun-stems of like form. (The feminine is an **a**-stem; the masculine and neuter, **o**-stems.)

71 A few adjectives have in all genders **-īŭs** for genitive singular ending, and **-ī** for dative singular.

72 **Duo** and **ambo** have special irregularities.

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[69] But **carbăsus, humus,** and **vannus** are feminine; **alvus** and **colus** usually so. **Domus** (see [115]) is feminine.

For **pelăgus, virus, vulgus,** neuter, see [115].

[70] Adjective stems in **-io** are regular, and are not shortened in the genitive and vocative singular.

[71] Viz., **alius, nullus, solus, totus, ullus, unus, alter, uter, neuter.** In poetry **-īŭs** is found, and, rarely, the regular endings.

Alius has an ending **-ŭd** for **-ŭm** in the neut. sg. nom. and acc., and contracts **-iŭs** of the gen. sg. to **-īŭs.** (An older stem **ali** is found in compounds and derivatives, and in the rare forms of the nom. sg. **alis, alid.** See under the I-declension, 94 ff.)

Satur drops the nom. sg. masc. ending (like stems in **-ĕro**).

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

altŭs	altă	altŭm		totŭs	totă	totŭm
altī	altae	altī		totīus	totīus	totīus
altō	altae	altō		totī	totī	totī
altŭm	altăm	altŭm		totŭm	totăm	totŭm
etc.	etc.	etc.	·	etc.	etc.	etc.
tenĕr	tenĕră	tenĕrŭm		altĕr	altĕră	altĕrŭm
tenĕrī	tenĕrae	tenĕrī		alterīŭs	alterīŭs	alterīŭs
tenĕrŏ	tenĕrae	tenĕrō		altĕrī	altĕrī	altĕrī
etc.	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.

THE CONSONANT-DECLENSION.   STEMS IN A CONSONANT.

The theme of any consonant-stem may be found | **73**
by dropping the genitive singular ending, -ĭs.   The
stem is the same as the theme.

The case-endings are : —

FOR MASCULINES AND FEMININES.

Sg. N.	-s	Pl. N.	-ēs	E.g., dux (= duc s)		duc ēs	
G.	-ĭs	G.	-ŭm	dŭc ĭs		duc ŭm	
D.	-ī	D.	-ĭbŭs	duc ī		duc ĭbŭs	**74**
Ac.	-ĕm	Ac.	-ēs	duc ĕm		duc ēs	
Ab.	-ĕ	Ab.	-ĭbŭs	duc ĕ		duc ĭbŭs	

FOR NEUTERS.

Sg. N.	—	Pl. N.	-ă	E.g., căpŭt		capĭt ă	
G.	-ĭs	G.	-ŭm	capĭt ĭs		capĭt ŭm	
D.	-ī	D.	-ĭbŭs	capĭt ī		capĭt ĭbŭs	**75**
Ac.	—	Ac.	-ă	capŭt		capĭt ă	
Ab.	-ĕ	Ab.	-ĭbŭs	capĭt ĕ		capĭt ĭbŭs	

ātĕr	ātră	ātrŭm	ŭtĕr	ŭtră	ŭtrŭm
atrī	atrae	atrī	utrīŭs	utrīŭs	utrīŭs
atrō	atrae	atrō	utrī	utrī	utrī
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

[72] duŏ	duae	duŏ			
duōrum	duārum	duōrum	ambŏ̄	ambae	ambŏ̄
duōbŭs	duābŭs	duōbŭs	ambōrŭm	ambārŭm	ambōrŭm
duōs, duŏ	duās	duŏ	etc.	etc.	etc.
duōbŭs	duābŭs	duōbŭs			

[74]   EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

[(m), (f), (n), and (c) show the gender.]

princeps (c)	consŭl (m)	hiems (f) [78]	gĕnŭs (n)	mĕl (n) [12] (b)
princĭpĭs	consŭlĭs	hiĕmĭs	genĕrĭs	mellĭs
princĭpī	consŭlī	hiĕmī	genĕrī	mellī
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
mīlĕs (m)	actŏr (m)	leŏ̄ (m) 79	corpŭs (n)	fār (n) [12] (b)
milĭtĭs	actōrĭs	leōnĭs	corpŏrĭs	farrĭs
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

76   The last vowel of the nominative singular is often weakened in other cases when a syllable is added. See [2] (*c*). But in s-stems the stronger vowel is retained before **r**, though weakened before **s** in the nominative singular.

77   The locative singular of consonant-stems ends in -ī.

78   Masculine and feminine semivowel-stems drop the ending of the nominative singular.

79   Final **n** of a stem falls after **o** in the nominative singular.

pĕcŭs (*f*)	ĕbŭr (*n*)	hŏmŏ̄ (*c*) 79	mōs (*m*)
pecŭdĭs	ebŏrĭs	homĭnĭs	mōrĭs
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
sĭlex (*c*)	aggĕr (*m*)	nōmĕn (*n*)	tellūs (*f*)
silĭcĭs	aggĕrĭs	nomĭnĭs	tellūrĭs
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
rex (*m*)	pătĕr (*m*) 80	cărŏ̄ (*f*) [115]	aequŏr (*n*)
rēgĭs	patrĭs	carnĭs	aequŏrĭs
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

In Greek words the Greek endings are sometimes kept. The following are found; viz.: gen. sg. -ŏs; dat. sg. -ī; acc. sg. -ă; nom. pl. -ĕs; gen. pl. -ōn; dat. pl. -sĭ; acc. pl. -ăs; nom. and acc. pl. neut. -ē (contracted from -ĕă). Greek stems in -ăt sometimes take a dat. and abl. pl. ending -īs like o-stems, though this is not a Greek ending in consonant-stems. See [62].

Old case-endings of consonant-stems are gen. sg. -**us, -es**; dat. sg. -**e**; abl. sg. -**ed, -id, -i**; dat. and abl. pl. -**ebus.**

[76] S-stems (except **vas,** see [115]) regularly become r-stems when a case-suffix is added. See [12] (*c*). Sometimes the final s of the nom. and acc. sg. becomes **r,** thus making them r-stems throughout. This change seems to have taken place in **jecur** and **robur,** which show the weaker vowel in the nominative, though the stronger ŏ appears in the other cases; and perhaps **ebur** and **femur,** which show the same peculiarity, may be explained in the same way.

[78] Except **hiem** (the only stem in -**m**), nom. **hiems** [or **hiemps.** See [12] (*h*)].

[79] Not always, however, in nouns borrowed from the Greek.

A few stems in -**ĕr** syncopate **ĕ**, except in the nominative singular. (Compare stems in -**ĕro**, 66.)	**80**
A few cases occur where consonant-stems take the endings of **i**-stems. Such forms are irregular, a result of the confusion caused by the close likeness of the two declensions.	**81**
Most mute-stems are feminine,	**82**
But $\begin{cases} \text{stems in -ĭc with nom. in -ex} \\ \quad\text{"} \quad\text{-ĭt} \quad\text{"} \quad\text{"} \quad\text{-ĕs} \end{cases}$ are masculine.	**83**
Stems in -**ōn** are masculine,	**84**
But abstracts in -**iōn** are feminine.	**85**
Stems in -**ĭn** with nominative in -**o** are feminine.	**86**
Stems in -**ĭn** with nominative in -**ĕn** are neuter.	**87**
Stems in -**l** are masculine.	**88**
Stems in -**r** and -**s** are neuter,	**89**
But stems in -**ōr** and -**ōs** are masculine.	**90**

[80] Viz.: **pater, mater, frater, accĭpĭter.**

[81] Viz.: an abl. sg ending -**ī**, or gen. pl. -**ium.** The latter is not unusual in stems in -**tāt**, which seem to have once been **i**-stems.

The following exceptions to the rules of gender are added for completeness, the more usual words being printed in larger type. **Hiems** (the only stem in -**m**) is feminine.

[82] **grex, paries, pes,** calix, fornix, are masculine.
  lapis, adeps, forceps, larix, varix, are common.
  caput, cor, are neuter.

[83] **silex,** cortex, forfex, imbrex, obex, rumex, are common.

[86] **ordo,** cardo, turbo, are masculine.
  cupīdo, margo, are common.

[87] **pecten** is masculine; (**sangvis,** see [115], is masculine).

[88] **fel** and **mel** are neuter (also sal sometimes in singular).

[89] **agger, carcer,** asser, later, vesper, vomer, are masculine.
  arbos, tellus, are feminine; **cinis, pulvis,** common; cucŭmis, masculine.

[90] **os** is neuter.

CONSONANT-STEM ADJECTIVES.

91   Adjectives with consonant-stems are declined like noun-stems of like form, but most of them take -ī as well as -ĕ for the ablative singular ending,— a result of their likeness to i-stems.   They comprise : —

92   (*a*) Adjectives in the comparative degree.
93   (*b*) Imparisyllabic adjectives with themes ending in a *short* syllable.

[92] Comparatives are thus declined : —

Sg. M. and F.	N.	*Pl.* M. and F.	N.	*Sg.* N.	*Pl.* M. and F.	N.
altiŏr	altiŭs	altiores	altiora	plūs	plures	plura
altiōris		altiorum		(plūris)	plurium	
altiori		altioribus			pluribus	
altiorem altius		altiores	altiora	plus	plures	plura
altiore(ī)		altioribus		(plure)	pluribus	

Plus is defective in the sg., and the forms **pluris** and **plure** are rare. In the gen. pl. it takes the ending -**ium** of i-stems. Its compound **complūres** (only plural) has in old Latin **complur-ia** as well as the regular **complūra.**

[93] Parisyllabic, having the same number of syllables in all cases of the singular.   Those a- and o-stem adjectives which have become imparisyllabic by the loss of the nominative singular ending (*i.e.*, stems in **ĕro** and **satur**) are, of course, not included.

The adjectives included in (*b*) are few, and their meanings usually cause them to be used only of persons.   They have no separate form in the singular for the neuter gender, but when necessary use the masc. and fem. form of the nom. as nom. and acc. neuter. sg.   They are declined as follows : —

Sg. M. and F.	N.	*Pl.* M. and F.	N.	*Sg.* M. and F.	N.	*Pl.* M. and F.	N.
	divĕs	divites	[divita]	pauper		pauperes	paupera
	divĭtis	divitum		paupĕris		pauperum	
	diviti	divitibus		pauperi		pauperibus	
divitem	dives	divites	[divita]	pauperem	pauper	pauperes	paupera
	divite	divitibus		paupere		pauperibus	

As exceptions to (*b*), must be set down a few i-stems ; viz.: **par** and **celer,** which drop the nom. sg. ending (see [102]) ; also **hebes, teres,**

THE *I*-DECLENSION.   STEMS IN *I*.

The theme of any **i**-stem may be found by dropping | **94**
the genitive singular ending, **-ĭs**. The stem is found
by adding **i** to the theme.

The following classes contain all the **i**-stems in | **95**
common use ; viz. : —

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praecox, and compounds of **-plex** (except **supplex**). See [108]. A few
adjective compounds of noun-stems have themes ending in a *long* syllable,
but are declined, of course, like the nouns from which they are made ; *e.g.,*
discŏlor, discolōrĭs, etc. Only a few forms of such are found, and it
has not seemed necessary to add a third class to contain them.

[94] I-stems have become much confused with consonant-stems through
their close likeness in declension, and have been changed into consonant-
stems in certain cases by the loss of **i.** They cannot, therefore, be distin-
guished by the ending of the gen. sg. as other vowel-stems can, since the
i is always lost in that case.

A comparison of **i**-stem nouns with more primitive forms in Latin or
kindred languages, shows that the **i** has arisen in many cases from an older
a, e, o, or **u,** by weakening. Some **i**-stems show the older **e** in certain
cases. In other words, the **i** is not found in kindred words in other lan-
guages, and seems to be added in Latin.

The **i** is kept or lost as follows : —

In Class I., kept in nom. sg. (sometimes as **e**) ; also in some words in
acc. and abl. sg. ; lost in gen. sg., and usually in abl. sg. The form of
the dat. sg. would be the same whether **i** be kept or lost, and the acc.
sg. ending **-em** may be considered an older form for **-ĭm** (like **-ēs** for **-ĭs** in
the nom. sg.), or a consonant-stem ending after **i** is lost.

In Class II., kept in the abl. sg. ; also in a few words (as **e**) in the
nom. and acc. sg. ; lost in gen. sg., usually in nom. and acc. sg. The
dative may be either, as in Class I.

In Class III., lost throughout the singular.

In the plural of all three classes, **i** may be kept throughout ; but it is
usually lost in the nom. and often in the acc. of masc. and fem. nouns.

Occasionally, however, **i** is kept in cases where it is usually lost, or lost
in cases where it is usually kept. This occurs more often in poetry for
metrical convenience.

96   I. Parisyllabic nouns in **-es** and **-is.**

97   II. Neuters in **-e,** and neuters with themes in **-āl** or **-ār.**

98   III. Nouns with themes ending in an impure mute. These, however, are **i**-stems only in the plural, having lost **i** in the singular.

99   The case-endings of **i**-stems of Class I. (masculine and feminine) are : —

	Sg. N.	-ēs	-ĭs	*Pl.* N.	-ēs (-īs)	
	G.	-ĭs	-ĭs	G.	-iŭm	
	D.	-ī	-ī	D.	-ĭbŭs	
	Ac.	-ĕm	-ĭm, -ĕm	Ac.	-īs, -ēs	
	Ab.	-ĕ	-ī, -ĕ	Ab.	-ĭbŭs	

E.g.,	N.	nūbēs	nubēs	turrĭs	turrēs
	G.	nubĭs	nubiŭm	turrĭs	turriŭm
	D.	nubī	nubĭbŭs	turrī	turrĭbŭs
	Ac.	nubĕm	nubīs (ēs)	turrĭm (ĕm)	turrīs (ēs)
	Ab.	nubĕ	nubĭbŭs	turrī (ĕ)	turrĭbŭs

[96] Of Class I., **canis** and **juvĕnis** lose **i** and become consonant-stems in the plural; **sedes** and **vates** usually; occasionally, also, a few others.

[98] Impure mute; *i.e.,* a mute preceded by a consonant. Of course nouns of this kind are not included if the gen. sg. ending shows them to be a-, o-, or u-stems.

Cor, though an **i**-stem in compounds, loses **i** in the plural also, and becomes a consonant-stem throughout. Many other monosyllables, especially those with a long stem-syllable, give evidence of having once been **i**-stems, and though the **i** is usually lost, it sometimes appears, especially in the abl. sg. or gen. pl. The Latin writers and grammarians were evidently uncertain as to the proper form in these words. All such words are put by the classification here given in the consonant declension, where the preponderance of evidence places them; but a list is subjoined, containing those words in which a pupil may occasionally meet with **i**-stem forms; viz. : —

cos, dos, faex, fraus, glis, lis, lux, mas, mus, pax.

as, nix, plebs, scrobs, trabs, have a greater claim to be classed as **i**-stems; the older forms, **assis, ningvis, plebes, scrobis, trabes,** show that they once belonged to Class I.

The case-endings of **i**-stems of Class II. (neut.) are : **100**

	Sg. N.	-ĕ or —	*Pl.* N.	-iă
	G.	-ĭs	G.	-iŭm
	D.	-ī	D.	-ĭbŭs
	Ac.	-ĕ or —	Ac.	-iă
	Ab.	-ī (ĕ)	Ab.	-ĭbŭs

E.g.,	N.	mărĕ	mariă	ănĭmăl	animăliă
	G.	marĭs	mariŭm	animālĭs	animāliŭm
	D.	marī	marĭbŭs	animālī	animālĭbŭs
	Ac.	marĕ	mariă	animăl	animāliă
	Ab.	marī	marĭbŭs	animālī	animālĭbŭs

I-stems of Class III. have in the plural the same   **101**
endings as those of Classes I. and II., but the endings
of consonant-stems in the singular.   (See 74 and 75.)

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[99] As acc. sg. ending, -ĭm is found in
> **Arărim, Ligĕrim, puppim, sitim, Tĭbĕrim, vim.**
> amussim, burim, cucŭmim, praesēpim (?), ravim, tussim.

As acc. sg. ending, both -ĭm and -ĕm are found in
> **febrim, messim, navim, turrim** (or **febrem,** etc.).
> cravim, cratim, lentim, pelvim, restim, sementim, secūrim (or
> cravem, etc.).

As abl. sg. ending, -ī is found in
> **siti, vi.**
> Aprīli, cucŭmi, Qvintīli, ravi, rumi, secūri, Sextīli, tussi.

As abl. sg. ending, both -ī and -ĕ are found in
> **aedīli, amni, angui, Arări, avi, civi, classi, colli, febri,
> fīni, igni, imbri, Ligĕri, navi, orbi, puppi, turri** (or
> **aidīle, amne,** etc.).
> axi, corbi, fusti, pelvi, posti, sodāli, strigĭli, ungvi (or
> axe, etc.).

The nom. pl. ending -īs (or -eis, see [2]) is rare ; in the acc. pl., modern
editions usually give one ending in all words to the exclusion of the other.
Which one is given is a matter of indifference as a question of grammar.

[100] The abl. sg. ending -ĕ is rare, except in names of towns.

[101] In Class III., only **partim** shows the **i** kept in the acc. sg., and
parti, lacti, sorti, in the abl. sg.   As an adverb, the form **partim** is

102   A few stems in **-ĕri** drop the ending of the nomina-
tive singular, and syncopate **ĕ** in all other cases.
(Compare stems in **-ĕro, 66,** and **-ĕr, 80.**)

103   I-stems of Class I. with themes in **n** or **s** are
masculine; other **i**-stems of Class I. are feminine.

104   I-stems of Class II. are neuter.

105   In Class III. polysyllables are masculine; mono-
syllables are feminine.

ADJECTIVES WITH STEMS IN I.

106   Adjectives with **i**-stems are declined like noun-
stems of like form, but those of Class I. have only **-ī,**
the regular ending, in the ablative singular; those of
Class III. have both **-ī** and **-ĕ.**

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common; the other forms are very rare, the **i** being regularly lost in the
singular of Class III.

[102] Viz.: **imber, linter, uter, venter,** and a few adjectives in the
masculine. **Arar, Liger,** and the adjective **par** drop the nom. sg. ending
(also **celer** in the masculine), but do not syncopate.

[103] The exceptions in Class I. are: —
(Theme in a mute)   **orbis;** fascis, ungvis; antes, fustis, postis, sentis,
                                vectis; *masculine.*
                        corbis, scrobis, torqvis; *common.*
(Theme in a liquid)   **collis, imber;** caulis, follis, buris, torris, uter,
                                venter; *masculine.*
                        callis, linter; *common.*
(Theme in a nasal)   **finis,** clunis; *common;* cucŭmis, *masculine.*
(Theme in -s)   **classis, messis,** tussis; *feminine.*

[105] The exceptions in Class III. are: —
            dens, fons, mons, pons; *masculine;* **cohors,** *feminine;* **lac,**
                neuter.

[106] Adjective-stems in **-ĕri** (except **celer**) generally syncopate **ĕ** in
all forms, except in the nom. sg. masc., and drop the ending of that case,
thus gaining different forms for masc. and fem. nom. sg. This differen-

To Classes I. and II. belong	
Parisyllabic adjectives in -ĭs (M. and F.), -ĕ (N.).	**107**
To Class III. belong	
Imparisyllabic adjectives, with themes ending in a *long* syllable.	**108**

tiation of form is not strictly observed, however; **acer,** for example, is *fem.* as well as *masc.* in old Latin, and **acris** *masc.* as well as *fem.*

There is, in general, a stronger tendency toward **i**-stem forms in the adjective than in the noun. This is shown not only in **i**-stem adjectives, which retain the **i** more often than nouns, but also in consonant-stem adjectives, which often take **ī** as the ending of the abl. sg. In spite of this tendency, however, the acc. sg. of adjectives has regularly the consonant-stem ending -**ĕm.**

[108] To Class III. belong also the numeral multiplicatives in -**plex** (*e.g.,* **duplex,** *two-fold;* **qvintŭplex,** *five-fold;* etc.), and the adjectives **hebes, teres, par, praecox.** See [93]. The comparative **plus** is peculiar. See [92].

Adjectives of Class III. have no separate form for the neuter singular, but use the nom. masc. as nom. and acc. sg. neut. To this class belong tribal names in -**ātes** and -**ītes,** and a few other words of like formation, generally found only in the plural, and used substantively (*e.g.,* **Arpinātes, optimātes,** etc.), and verbal derivatives in -**trix** (commonly used as feminine nouns of agency) when used as adjectives (*e.g.,* **victrix**).

Adjectives with **i**-stems are declined as follows: —

M. and F.	N.	M.	F.	N.	M. and F.	N.	M. and F.	N.
lĕvĭs	lĕvĕ	ācĕr	ācrĭs	ācrĕ	pār		ămans	
levĭs		ācris	acris	acris	părĭs		amantis	
levī		acri	acri	acri	pari		amanti	
levĕm	levĕ	acrem	acrem	acre	parem	par	amantem	amans
levī		etc.	etc.	etc.	pari(e)		amante(i)	
levēs	leviă	cĕlĕr	cĕlĕrĭs	cĕlĕrĕ	pares	paria	amantes	amantia
leviŭm		celĕrĭs	celeris	celeris	parium		amantium	
levĭbŭs		celeri	celeri	celeri	paribus		amantibus	
levīs(ēs)	leviă	celerem	celerem	celere	parīs(es)	paria	amantes(īs)	amantia
levĭbŭs		etc.	etc.	etc.	paribus		amantibus	

A few compounds of consonant noun-stems have themes ending in a long syllable, but are consonant-stems of course, and may be regarded as exceptions. See [93]. Adjectives in the comparative degree are also consonant-stems. See [92] and [93].

THE *U*-DECLENSION.   STEMS IN -*U*.

109   The theme of any **u**-stem may be found by dropping the genitive singular ending, **-ūs.** The stem is found by adding **-u** to the theme.

     The case-endings are : —

FOR MASCULINES.

Sg. N.	-ŭs	*Pl.* N.	-ūs	*E.g.,* curr **ŭs**	curr **ūs**
	G.	-ūs		G.	-uŭm	curr **ūs**	curr **uŭm**
110	D.	-uī (ū)		D.	-ŭbŭs, ĭbŭs	curr **uī**	curr **ĭbŭs**
	Ac.	-ŭm		Ac.	-ŭs	curr **ŭm**	curr **ūs**
	Ab.	-ū		Ab.	-ŭbŭs, ĭbŭs	curr **ū**	curr **ĭbŭs**

FOR NEUTERS.

Sg. N.	-ū	*Pl.* N.	-uă	*E.g.,* corn **ū**	corn **uă**
	G.	-ūs		G.	-uŭm	corn **ūs**	corn **uŭm**
111	D.	-ū		D.	-ŭbŭs, -ĭbŭs	corn **ū**	corn **ĭbŭs**
	Ac.	-ū		Ac.	-uă	corn **ū**	corn **uă**
	Ab.	-ū		Ab.	-ŭbŭs, -ĭbŭs	corn **ū**	corn **ĭbŭs**

[110] The gen. sg. sometimes has the uncontracted ending **-uĭs,** the gen. pl. (rarely) the contracted ending **-um.**

The contracted ending **-ū** of the dat. sg. is regular in neuters ; rare in masculines.

The fuller ending **-ŭbŭs** of the dat. and abl. pl. is found in **acus, arcus, partus, tribus ;** usually in **artus, lacus, specus ;** sometimes in **portus, veru.**

An ending **-ī** occurs a few times in the gen. sg., apparently from confusion with **o**-stems from the same root. **O**-stem forms occur occasionally in other cases also, and many names of plants and trees are confused in their inflection, having both **o**-stem and **u**-stem forms.

Old forms in inscriptions, etc., show the ending of gen. sg. **-uos.** For **-ū** and **-ūs, -uu** and **-uus** are sometimes written to show the length of the **ū.** See [2].

A locative **domui** occurs rarely ; no other **u**-stems form a locative.

Monosyllabic stems in **-u** retain the suffixes un- **112**
contracted with the stem-vowel, and are therefore
declined like consonant-stems.

U-stems with nominative singular ending -**ŭs** are **113**
masculine; the others are neuter.

Irregular Declension.

Nouns and adjectives are irregular in declension —
    (*a*) From the retention of old endings.   **114**
    (*b*) From variation of the stem.   **115**

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[112] Viz.: **grūs, sūs,** and **lues** (when it drops **i**); with the irregular
stems **bū, Jū.** But **sūs** has **sūbus** and **sŭbus** as well as **suibus.**

The stems **bū** and **Jū** stand for the older diphthongal stems, **bou-, Jou-.**
The diphthong changes **u** to **v** before a vowel (see [12] (*a*)), and passes
into **ō** or **ū** before a consonant.   The forms are : —

bōs	bŏves	Jūpĭter (Juppiter)
bŏvis	bŏvum, boum (see [12] (*c*))	Jŏvis
bŏvi	bōbus, būbus	Jŏvi
bŏvem	bŏves	Jŏvem
bŏve	bōbus, būbus	Jŏve

The nom. **Jupiter** (old form Jupater) is a compound of **pater.**   Some-
times the second part is declined **Jupitĕris,** etc.

[113] **Domus, idus, manus, tribus,** colus, qvinqvātrus, and portĭcus
are feminine.

Acus, arcus, penus, and specus are common.

[114] The irregularities under (*a*) have been already mentioned with
the endings of the various declensions.

[115] The following are irregular from variation of stem : —

balneum (st. **balneo-**); pl. usually **balneae,** etc. (st. **balnea-**).
caro   (st. **carŏn-**); all other cases from a syncopated stem **carn-**
            (**carnĭs, carnī,** etc.).
domus   (st. **domu-**); a stem **domo-** is found also in all cases except
            the nom., dat., and abl. pl., and is more common in the
            loc. and abl. sg., where the **u**-stem forms are old.
epŭlum (st. **epŭlo-**); pl. **epulae,** etc. (st. **epula-**).

| **116** | (*c*) From variation of gender. |
| **117** | (*d*) From lack of certain cases. |

fames	(st. **fame-**); but gen. sg. usually **famĭs** (st. **fam-**).
femur	(st. **femŏr-**); except in nom. and acc. sg., a stem **femĭn-** is equally common.
iter	(st. **itĕr-**); except in nom. and acc. sg., a stem **itĭnĕr-** is used.
jugĕrum	(st. **jugĕro-**); pl. **jugĕra,** etc. (st. **jugĕr-**).
jecur	(st. **jecŏr-**); except in nom. and acc. sg., a stem **jocĭnĕr-** or **jocĭnŏr-** is equally common.
pelăgus	(st. **pelăgus-**); only nom. and acc. sg. and nom. and acc. pl. in Greek form **pelăgē** (contracted from **pelageă**); other cases from a stem **pelăgo-**.
sangvis	(st. **sangvi-**); only nom. sg. Other forms from a stem **sangvĭn-**.
senex	(st. **senec-**); only nom. sg. Other forms from a stem **sen-**.
supellex	(st. **supellect-**); only nom. sg. Other forms from a stem **supellectĭli-**.
virus	(st. **virus-**); only nom. and acc. sg. Other forms from a stem **viro-**.
vas	(st. **vas-**); pl. **vasa,** etc. (st. **vaso-**). In this noun **s** does not suffer the usual change to **r.**
vesper	(st. **vespĕro-**); but abl. sg. **vespĕre** (st. **vespĕr-**).
vulgus	(st. **vulgus-**); only nom. and acc. sg. All other forms from a masc. stem **vulgo-**, which is found also in nom. and acc. sg.
vis	(st. **vi-**); pl. **vires,** etc. (st. **viri-**).

The only adjectives irregular from variation of stem (except **senex** above, which is usually used as a noun) are the adjective compounds of **caput**, which form the nom. sg. from a syncopated stem; *e.g.*, **praeceps** (st. **praecept-**); but other cases from a stem **praecipĭt-**; **praecipĭtis**, etc.

[116] Nouns in which variation of stem has caused variation of gender are included in [115]. Aside from such, variation of gender causes irregularity of declension in the following:—

caelum	(st. **caelo-**), neut.; pl. (found only once), **caelos,** masc.
carbăsus	(st. **carbăso-**), fem.; pl. neut. **carbăsa,** etc.
frenum	(st. **freno-**), neut.; pl. neut. **frena,** etc., or masc. **freni,** etc.
jocus	(st. **joco-**), masc.; pl. neut. **joca,** etc., or masc. **joci,** etc.
locus	(st. **loco-**), masc.; pl. neut. **loca,** etc., or masc. **loci,** etc.
rastrum	(st. **rastro-**), neut.; pl. neut. **rastra,** etc., or masc. **rastri,** etc.

[117] Nouns that lack some of their forms are called defective. There are many such in Latin, some of which lack the plural or the singular on account of their meaning; in others, the lack of certain forms seems to be

Numeral Adjectives.

The cardinal numerals, from *one* to *ten*, with **118**
centum and **mille,** are primitive words; the others
are formed from these. **Unus, duo, tres,** and the

purely accidental. A few neuters have only the nom. and acc. sg., and
are called indeclinable.

It has not seemed necessary to add any list of defective nouns. Such a
list would be of no practical value to the learner, and would be a very
large one if it should contain all the nouns, except those all of whose
forms are found in Latin writers. The lexicon must be consulted for such
information.

[118] For the declension of **unus,** see 71; of **duo,** [72]. **Tres** is a
regular **i**-stem. **Mille** is a regular **i**-stem, but is indeclinable in the singular.
The hundreds are regular a- and o-stems. All cardinals except **unus,** of
course, lack the singular, as do all the distributives. See the list below.

The combination of units, tens and hundreds to form the intermediate
numbers is made as in English.

A list of numeral adjectives is added for reference. The corresponding
numeral adverbs are also given: —

CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	NUMERAL ADVS.
1 unus, -a, -um, one;	primus, -a, -um, *first*;	singŭli, -ae, -a, one by one;	semel, *once.*
2 duo, -ae, -o, two;	alter, -a, -um / secundus, -a, -um	bīni, -ae, -a, two by two;	bis, *twice.*
3 tres, tria	tertius, -a, -um	terni *or* trini, etc.	ter, *thrice.*
4 qvattuor	qvartus, -a, -um	qvaterni	qvater, *four times.*
5 qvinqve	qvintus, etc.	qvīni	qvinqviens, etc.
6 sex	sextus	sēni	sexiens
7 septem	septĭmus	septēni	septiens
8 octo	octāvus	octōni	octiens
9 novem	nonus	novēni	noviens
10 decem	decĭmus	dēni	deciens
11 undĕcim	undecĭmus	undēni	undeciens
12 duodĕcim	duodecĭmus	duodēni	duodeciens
13 tredĕcim	tertius decĭmus	terni dēni	terdeciens
14 qvattuordĕcim	qvartus decĭmus	qvaterni dēni	qvaterdeciens
15 qvindĕcim	etc.	etc.	qvindeciens
16 sedĕcim			etc.
17 septemdĕcim			
18 octodĕcim			
19 novemdĕcim			

hundreds except **centum**, are declined; also **mille**, when used as a noun. The other cardinals are indeclinable.

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.	NUMERAL ADVS.
20	viginti	vicensĭmus	vicēni	viciens
21	viginti unus *or* unus et viginti	primus et vicensĭmus *or* unus et vicensĭmus	vicēni singŭli	semel et viciens
22	viginti duo *or* duo et viginti etc.	etc.	vicēni bini etc.	bis et viciens etc.
30	triginta	tricensĭmus	tricēni	triciens
40	qvadraginta	qvadragensĭmus	qvadragēni	qvadragiens
50	qvinqvaginta	qvinqvagensĭmus	qvinqvagēni	qvinqvagiens
60	sexaginta	sexagensĭmus	sexagēni	sexagiens
70	septuaginta	septuagensĭmus	septuagēni	septuagiens
80	octoginta	octogensĭmus	octogēni	octogiens
90	nonaginta	nonagensĭmus	nonagēni	nonagiens
100	centum	centensĭmus	centēni	centiens
101	centum et unus	centensĭmus primus	centēni singŭli	centiens semel
200	ducenti, -ae, -a	ducentensĭmus	ducēni	ducentiens
300	trecenti	trecentensĭmus	trecēni	trecentiens
400	qvadringenti	etc.	etc.	etc.
500	qvingenti			
600	sescenti			
700	septingenti			
800	octingenti			
900	nongenti			
1000	mille			
2000	duo millia			
3000	tria millia etc.			

For 18, 19, 28, 29, etc., *substractive* forms (**duodeviginti, undetriginta,** etc.) are more common than the regular forms. So also, **duodevincensĭ-mus, duodevicēni,** etc.

In the later language, the endings **-ensimus** and **-iens** drop **n** and become **-ēsimus, -iēs.**

The distributives, besides their regular meaning, *two by two, in twos*, etc., are also used with nouns plural in form but singular in meaning. Thus **castra,** *forts*, is the Latin word for a *camp*. **Bina castra** means *two camps* (lit. *forts by twos, two sets of forts*). They are also used in expressing multiplication; *e.g.*, **bis dena viginti sunt,** *twice ten is twenty*.

Comparison of Adjectives.

119 The stem of the comparative degree is formed by adding **-ios** to the theme of the positive. This suffix becomes **-iŭs** in the nominative and accusative singular neuter; **-iōr** elsewhere. (For the declension of the comparative, see [92].)

120 The stem of the superlative is formed by adding **-issĭmo-, -issĭma-** to the theme of the positive.

121 Stems in **-ĕr-, -ĕro-, -ĕri-,** add **-rĭmo-** to the theme for the superlative, and a few in **-ĭli-** add **-lĭmo-**.

122 Compounds of **-dĭcus, -fĭcus,** and **-vŏlus** add the suffixes of comparison to a theme in **-dĭcent-, -fĭcent-, -vŏlent-**.

123 Many adjectives are not compared. If a comparative or superlative of such is needed, it is formed by prefixing **magis** (*more*); **maxĭme** (*most*).

[119] Comparison is not inflection, but derivation; but is placed here for convenience.

[121] These stems, if syncopated in the positive, are also syncopated in the comparative, but not in the superlative. **Matūrus** sometimes adds **-rĭmo-** for the superlative.

Those which add **-lĭmo** are **facĭlis, difficĭlis, simĭlis, dissimĭlis, gracĭlis, humĭlis.**

[122] The themes in **-nt** are participles in formation.

[123] The following have special irregularities:—

bonus	melior	optĭmus	**infĕrus**	inferior	infĭmus, imus
malus	pejor	pessĭmus	**postĕrus**	posterior	postrēmus, postŭmus
magnus	major	maxĭmus	**supĕrus**	superior	suprēmus, summus
multus	plus (neut.)	plurĭmus		citerior	citĭmus
parvus	minor	minĭmus		interior	intĭmus
senex	senior			prior	prīmus
juvĕnis	junior			propior	proxĭmus
extĕrus	exterior	extrēmus,		ulterior	ultĭmus
		or extĭmus	**vetus**		veterrĭmus

Many adjectives lack the comparative or superlative. The lacking superlative of **senex** is supplied by the phrase **maxĭmus natu**; that of **juvĕnis** by **minĭmus natu.**

Forms of Pronouns.

124   The personal pronouns are **ĕgo, tu, sui.**   They are
peculiar in declension, partly from variation of stem,
partly from the retention of older endings lost in the
ordinary noun-declension.

They are thus declined : —

<div align="center">

EGO (St. egon-, me-, nō-).

</div>

	Sg.			Pl.	
	N.	ĕgŏ		nōs	
	G.	(meī)		(nostrŭm, nostrī)	
	D.	mihĭ, mī		nōbīs	
	Ac.	mē		nōs	
	Ab.	mē		nōbīs	

125

<div align="center">

TU (St. te-, vō-),   **SUI** (St. se-).

</div>

	Sg.	Pl.		Sg. —	Pl. —
N.	tū	vōs			
G.	(tuī)	(vestrŭm, vestrī)		(suī)	(suī)
D.	tĭbĭ	vōbīs		sĭbĭ	sĭbĭ
Ac.	tē	vōs		sē, sēsē	sē, sēsē
Ab.	tē	vōbīs		sē, sēsē	sē, sēsē

126   The possessive pronouns **mĕŭs, tuŭs, suŭs, nostĕr,
vestér,** are derived from the personal pronouns.
They are regular a- and **o**-stem adjectives, except
that **mĕŭs** forms its vocative singular masculine, **mī,**
from an older form **miŭs.**

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[125] **Sui** is often called the reflexive pronoun, because it refers to the
subject of the sentence. For a personal pronoun not referring to the sub-
ject, a demonstrative (**is, ille, iste**) is used.

The gen. sg. of **ego** and **tu** was **mis, tis.** These forms were lost, and
the gen. forms of all the personal pronouns in both numbers are borrowed
from the possessives.

The personal pronouns are sometimes emphasized by appending -**met,**
-**te,** or -**pte.** So also, at times, the possessives : **egomet, nosmet, tute,
suipte, suopte,** etc.

Med, ted, sed, are old forms for **me, te, se** (acc. and abl.). The
doubled form **sese** is common ; **tete** for **te** occurs in old Latin ; also **vos-
trum** for **vestrum,** and **sibe** or **sibei** for **sibi.**

The demonstrative pronouns have the declension | **127**
of adjectives, but take the pronominal suffix **-d** in
the nominative and accusative singular neuter, and
the pronominal endings **-ĭus, -ī,** in the genitive and
dative singular of all genders. Certain cases of some
of them are regularly emphasized by appending a
demonstrative or intensive syllable (**ī, cĕ** or **c**).

The demonstratives are **ĭs, istĕ, illĕ, ipsĕ, hĭc,** | **128**
īdem.

Is (stem **i-,** usually lengthened to **io-, eo-**) is thus | **129**
declined : —

Sg.				*Pl.*				
N.	ĭs	eă	ĭd	N.	eī, iī	eae	eă
G.	ējŭs	ējŭs	ējŭs	G.	eōrŭm	eārŭm	eōrŭm
D.	ēī	ēī	ēī	D.	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
Ac.	eŭm	eăm	ĭd	Ac.	eōs	eās	eă
Ab.	eō	eā	eō	Ab.	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs

[127] A few instances are found of the regular adj. endings in the gen.
and dat. sg.

The forms strengthened by **-i** are those which end in **-ă**; viz.: nom. sg.
fem., and nom. and acc. pl. neut. **ă + i** contracts to **ae.** This strengthen-
ing is found in **hic**; sometimes in **ille** and **iste.** (It occurs also in the
relative pronoun. See 138.)

Ce is used to strengthen all the cases, but drops e except after **s.** It is
used in **hic**; sometimes in **ille** and **iste.** In the older language various
forms occur with an appended **-ce** or **-c.**

[128] A demonstrative stem, **so-, sa-,** is said to have been used by
Ennius in the forms **sum, sam, sas.**

For **ille** an older spelling, **olle,** is found in poetry.

[129] From the stem **i-** are formed **is, id**; also the old forms **em** (or
im) = **eum,** and **ibus** = **eis.** The rest is formed from the longer stem.
Ei and **eis** are sometimes contracted into monosyllables; **eae** (dat. sg. fem.)
and **eābus** (abl. pl. fem.) are found in Cato, and inscriptions show various
forms with **ei** written for **i** (according to [2]), and the nom. pl. forms
eis, eeis, ieis.

130   Istĕ (stem isto-) is thus declined : —

Sg. N.	istĕ	istă	istŭd	Pl. istī	istae	istă
G.	istĭŭs	istĭŭs	istĭŭs	istōrŭm	istārŭm	istōrŭm
D.	istī	istī	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs
Ac.	istŭm	istăm	istŭd	istōs	istās	istă
Ab.	istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs

131   Illĕ is declined like istĕ.

132   Ipsĕ is declined like istĕ, but has ipsŭm in the nominative and accusative neuter singular.

133   Hĭc (stem hi- or ho-) is strengthened by both -i and -ce, but the latter is not usual except in certain cases.

134   The usual forms are : —

Sg. N.	hĭc	haec	hŏc	Pl. hī	hae	haec
G.	hūjŭs	hūjŭs	hūjŭs	hōrŭm	hārŭm	hōrŭm
D.	huīc	huīc	huīc	hīs	hīs	hīs
Ac.	hunc	hanc	hŏc	hōs	hās	haec
Ab.	hōc	hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	hīs

[130] A nom. sg. masc. istŭs is found once.

[132] For ipse, ipsŭs is found. Ipse is compounded of is and -pse, and a few forms occur in which the first part is declined while the second remains unchanged; viz.: eăpse, cumpse, campse, eōpse, eāpse.

[133] The stem hi- is found in hic, and in the old forms hisce (= hi) and hībus (= hīs). Huic is often monosyllabic (hvic).

[134] Other forms of hic, chiefly old or poetical, are : —

Sg. N.	hice		hoce	Pl. N.	hisce	haec	haice
G.	{ hoiusce { hujusce	hoiusce hujusce	hoiusce hujusce	G.	{ horunce { horunc	harunce harunc	
D.	hoice	hoice	hoice	D.	{ hibus { hisce	hibus hisce	hibus hisce
Ac.		hance		Ac.	hosce	hasce	haice
Ab.		hāce		Ab.	{ hibus { hisce	hibus hisce	hibus hisce

Illĕ and istĕ are sometimes strengthened by -i and -ce in the same way as hĭc. | **135**

Idĕm is formed by appending -dĕm to the various forms of is. The forms is and id drop -s and -d. | **136**

Idĕm is thus declined : — | **137**

Sg. N.	īdem	eădem	ĭdem	Pl.	eīdem	eaedem	eădem
G.	ējusdem	ējusdem	ējusdem		eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
D.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem		eīsdem	eīsdem	eīsdem
Ac.	eundem	eandem	ĭdem		eōsdem	eāsdem	eădem
Ab.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem		eīsdem	eīsdem	eīsdem

The relative pronoun (stem qvi- or qvo-) has the strengthening -i. See [127]. It is thus declined : — | **138**

Sg. N.	qvī	qvae	qvŏd	Pl.	qvī	qvae	qvae
G.	cūjŭs	cūjŭs	cūjŭs		qvōrŭm	qvārŭm	qvōrŭm
D.	cuĭ	cuĭ	cuĭ		qvĭbŭs	qvĭbŭs	qvĭbŭs
Ac.	qvĕm	qvăm	qvŏd		qvōs	qvās	qvae
Ab.	qvō	qvā	qvō		qvĭbŭs	qvĭbŭs	qvĭbŭs

The same pronoun is also used as an interrogative pronoun, but when used substantively has qvĭs, qvĭd in the nominative singular for qvī, qvŏd. | **139**

[135] The forms thus produced are : —

Sg. N.	illic	illaec	illoc, illuc	Pl. N.	illic	illaec	illaec
G.	illiusce	illiusce	illiusce	G.			
D.	illic	illic	illic	D.	illisce	illisce	illisce
Ac.	illunc	illanc	illoc, illuc	Ac.	illosce	illasce	illaec
Ab.	illoc	illac	illoc	Ab.	illisce	illisce	illisce

So also istic, istaec, istoc, etc.

[138] From the stem qvi- is formed also an abl. sg. qvī, and the old nom. pl. qves. From the stem qvo- is formed also a dat. and abl. pl. qvīs. For cujus, cui, an older spelling, qvojus, qvoi (or qvojei), is found. Cui is often monosyllabic (cvi).

[139] A few cases of qvi, qvod used substantively occur, and qvis, qvid, are not rarely used adjectively; qvis and qvem are sometimes

140   The same pronoun is also used as an indefinite pronoun. When so used, it has the same forms as when used interrogatively, but usually does not take the strengthening **-i.**

141   Various indefinite pronouns compounded of **quĭs** or **qvī** occur, all of which have the same declension; but those in which **qvĭs** or **qvī** forms the second part usually do not take the strengthening **-i.**

Forms of the Verb.

142 The Latin verb has the following forms: —

143   (*a*) Three tenses for incomplete action: *present, imperfect, future.*

144   (*b*) Three tenses for completed action: *perfect, pluperfect, future perfect.*

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feminine. **Qvinam** or **qvisnam** is a more emphatic interrogative; it has the same forms, with **-nam** appended.

From the stem **qvo-** is formed a possessive interrogative, **cūjus, a, um** (= *whose*). It is antiquated, and only a few forms occur; viz.: **cujă, cujum, cujam, cujā, cujae.**

[140] **Qvi** or **qvis** is indefinite after **si, nisi, ne, num,** rarely elsewhere.

[141] A list is added for reference: —

alĭqvi or alĭqvis	alĭqva	alĭqvod or alĭqvid	*some, any-.*
ecqvi or ecqvis	ecqva, ecqvae	ecqvod or ecqvid	*any?*
qvidam	qvaedam	qvoddam	*a, a certain.*
qvicunqve	qvaecunqve	qvodcunqve	*whatever.*
qvilĭbet	qvaelĭbet	qvodlĭbet	*which you like, any.*
qvivis	qvaevis	qvodvis	*which you will, any.*

So **qviviscunque,** etc. { *whichever you will, any.*

qvisqvis (once qviqvi). Only a few forms are found.			*whosoever.*
qvisqvam		qvidqvam, qvicqvam	*any at all.*
qvispiam	qvaepiam	qvidpiam	*any.*
qvisqve	qvaeqve	qvodqve or qvidqve	*every.*

So **unusqvisqve,** etc.   *every single one.*

It should be noticed that **ecqvis,** being at the same time interrogative and indefinite, forms **ecqvă** and **ecqvae,** without the **i** and with it.

The present tense has three moods: *indicative, subjunctive, imperative*. | **145**

The imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect have two moods: *indicative, subjunctive*. | **146**

The future and future perfect have one mood: *indicative*. | **147**

These forms are often called, collectively, the "*finite verb*." Beside these, certain derivative noun- and adjective-forms are usually treated in connection with the verb; viz.: — | **148**

(*a*) Three verbal nouns called *infinitives*. | **149**
(*b*) A verbal noun called the *gerund*. | **150**
(*c*) A verbal noun called the *supine*. | **151**
(*d*) Four verbal adjectives called *participles*. | **152**

Of the finite verb only the incomplete tenses form a passive voice. For the passive of the complete tenses the Latin, like the English, uses the verb "*be*" with a passive participle. | **153**

The passive voice of the incomplete tenses was originally reflexive in its formation and meaning, and | **154**

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[149] Viz.: a present active infinitive, a present passive infinitive, a perfect active infinitive. The infinitives are indeclinable nouns.

[150] The gerund is a neuter o-stem used only in the oblique cases of the singular.

[151] The supine is a u-stem used only in the acc. and abl. sg.

[152] Viz.: a present active participle, a present passive participle, a future active participle, and a perfect passive participle. The first is an i-stem of Class III.; the others are regular a- and o-stems.

[154] The name "deponent" was given to these verbs by the old grammarians, because they were supposed to have "*laid off*" their active form. In many of them the reflexive force can be seen; *e.g.*, **fruor,** *I enjoy* (*myself*); **vescor,** *I eat* (*feed myself*); **cingor,** *I bind on* (*myself*), etc. That

the reflexive use still remains in some verbs; *e.g.*, **vertor,** *I turn* [*myself*]. Many verbs thus used have lost the active form entirely, and use only the passive. They are usually translated into English by active forms, and are called "*deponent*" verbs.

Verb-Stems.

155   Verb-stems, like noun-stems, may end in **a, e, i, o, u,** or a consonant. Of stems in **-o** only a few forms are found.

156   In most verbs two or three forms of the stem are found, — the verb-stem proper (*simple stem*), a modification of it used in the incomplete tenses (*present stem*), and another modification of it used in the complete tenses (*perfect stem*).

157   In many verbs the present stem is the same as the

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they are not true passives, is shown by the fact that many of them are transitive and govern a direct object. In many of them it is not easy to see the reflexive meaning, possibly because the original meaning is not known, and they are apparently equivalent to active forms.

Deponent verbs form the gerund, supine, and participles of the active as well as the passive voice, and their passive participles are sometimes passive in meaning. In the tenses for completed action, though these are not reflexive in formation, the meaning follows that of the incomplete tenses, and these forms also are usually rendered into English by the active voice.

[155] Open vowel-stems, as in nouns, differ in certain points from close vowel and consonant-stems, but the division is not sufficiently marked to make the grouping of any importance.

The only **o**-stems are **no-sc-o** (and its compounds), **fŏ-rem,** etc. (imp. subj.) and **fŏ-re** (pres. inf.), and a few participles which have become adjectives in use.

[157] The modifications mentioned here, especially *nasalizing,* are sometimes by analogy carried also into the perfect-stem or simple-stem forms.

simple stem. When not so, it is formed from the
simple stem, —

> (a) By reduplication. 158
> (b) By lengthening the stem-vowel. 159
> (c) By adding or inserting a nasal. 160
> (d) By adding -sc, -esc, or -isc. 161
> (e) By adding -a, -e, or -i. 162

The perfect stem is rarely like the simple stem. 163
Usually it is formed from the simple stem, —

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[158] Reduplication consists in repeating before the stem its initial
consonant-sound with the following vowel, often with a weakening of the
latter. Stems ending in a vowel lose the final vowel when reduplicated,
and become consonant-stems.

Reduplication is found in the present stem in four cases; viz.: **bib-o**
(ba-), **gign-o** (for *gigĕn-o*, **gĕn-**), **ser-o** (for *ses-o*, **sa-**), and **sist-o** (**sta-**).
Sisto is peculiar in repeating only the initial **s** and the vowel (not **st**).

[159] *E.g.*, **dūc-o** (dŭc-), **dīc-o** (dĭc-).

[160] *E.g.*, **sĭn-o** (si-), **pung-o** (pŭg-), **find-o** (fĭd-).

[161] *E.g.*, **ac-esc-o** (ac-), **no-sc-o** (no-), **reviv-isc-o** (reviv-).   When
sc is added after a consonant, there is usually some obscurity of formation
from euphonic loss.

Verbs which form the present stem in this way usually mean *to become*
(so and so), *to begin to be* (so and so). They are often called, therefore,
inceptive or *inchoative* verbs.

[162] A few present stems end in **ll,** which seems to have arisen from
li; viz.: **cell-o, pell-o, toll-o,** also **sall-o** or **salio** (*to salt*). But **sali-o**
(*to leap*) and **sepeli-o** do not change.

[163] Possibly all cases of likeness of form between the perfect stem
and the simple stem are the result of loss. Stems in a close vowel often
drop the **v** of the perfect stem; those in -**u** show the **v** only in old Latin.
Others have lost a reduplication syllable, and possibly the stem-vowel is
lengthened in others, where the syllable is long by position, and the real
quantity of the vowel therefore not clear.

164		(*a*) By reduplication.
165		(*b*) By lengthening the stem-vowel.
166		(*c*) By adding **-s**.
167		(*d*) By adding **-u** or **-v**.

The " principal parts " of a verb are : —

168	ACTIVE	The pres. ind. act., 1st sg. } which show the *present* stem.
		The pres. inf. act.
		The perf. ind. act., 1st sg., which shows the *perfect* stem.
		The supine, which shows the *simple* stem.
169	PASSIVE	The pres. ind. pass., 1st sg. } which show the *present* stem.
		The pres. inf. pass.
		The perf. pass. participle, which shows the *simple* stem.

[164] In the perfect stem ă is regularly weakened to ĕ in the reduplication syllable, and to ĕ or ĭ in the stem syllable. **Bĭb-i (ba-)** seems to owe its form to the present **bĭb-o ;** possibly **stĭt-i** has been affected in the same way by **sĭst-o.**

The stems which begin with two consonants (**scid-, sta-, spond-**) drop the initial **s** of the stem, after the reduplication syllable (making **scĭ-cĭd-i, ste-t-i, spo-pond-i**). For the loss of the final vowel of **ba-, da-,** and **sta-** in **bĭb-i, dĕd-i, stet ĭ** or **stĭt-i,** see [158].

The reduplication of the perfect stem is usually dropped when the verb is compounded with a preposition. A few stems only retain it.

[165] *E.g.* **lēg-i (lĕg-); pāv-i (păv-).** The stem-vowel ă becomes ē when lengthened to form the perfect stem, except when followed by **v** (viz.: in **cāv-i, fāv-i, lāv-i, pāv-i**) or **b** (in **scāb-i**). Thus, **ēg-i (ăg-), pēg-i (păg-),** etc.

[167] **U** is added after consonants, **v** after vowels, and the preceding vowel is regularly made long before the added **-v**.

[168] *E.g.*, **am-o, amā-re, amāv-i, amā-tum,** passive, **am-or, amā-ri, amā-tus.** These are the forms usually given in grammars and lexicons, and are based on a classification of verbs according to the ending of the pres. inf. as follows : —

First conjugation; inf. endings **-āre, -ārī,** = a-stems.
Second   "   "   "   **-ērĕ, -ērī,** = e-stems.
Third   "   "   "   **-ĕrĕ, -ī,** = cons. **u-** and short **i**-stems.
Fourth   "   "   "   **-īrĕ, -īrī,** = long **i**-stems.

In most verbs the pres. inf. would be enough to identify the present stem, but short **i**-stems lose the **i** and become consonant-stems in this form. The pres. ind. is therefore added to identify such.

Verbal Suffixes.

The suffixes of the finite verb contain two elements, one of which shows the mood and tense (*mood-and-tense sign*), the other the person and number (*person-and-number suffix*).	**170**
The mood-and-tense signs are added to the stem as follows: —	**171**

Pres. ind., *none;* pres. imp., *none;* pres subj., ī in a-stems, ā elsewhere.	**172**
Imp. ind., ĕbā or ēbā; imp. subj., ĕrē.	**173**
Fut. ind., ĕb in open vowel-stems, ā and ē elsewhere.	**174**
Perf. ind. (ēs or īs? See 188); perf. subj., ĕrī.	**175**
Plup. ind., ĕrā; plup. subj., issē.	**176**
Fut. perf. ind., ĕr.	**177**

[170] The names "tense-and-mood sign," "person-and-number suffix," are used for convenience, without implying any theory of their origin, simply because they show to the eye or ear the tense and mood, person and number, and, incidentally, the voice of the verb. Grammarians are agreed that the suffixes of person and number are stunted forms of personal pronouns; and most of the signs of tense and mood are generally thought to be derived from the verbs "*be*" (stems -es, -fu) and "*go*" (stem -ī).

[171] Mood-and-tense signs are added, of course, to the present stem in the incomplete tenses, and to the perfect stem in the complete tenses.

[172] In the pres. subj. ī contracts with a preceding a to ē.

[173] The imp. ind. sign is -ēbā after a consonant or u, and almost always after i. ĕbā is used after open vowels, also in old Latin after i, but in both ĕbā and ĕb the initial vowel is always absorbed. (See [178]).

[174] The fut. ind. sign ā is found in the first sg.; ē in the other forms. In old Latin, stems in i sometimes form the future with the sign ĕb.

[175] The perf. subj. sign is often -ĕrī, a result of confusion with the fut. perf. ind. which closely resembles it in form and use.

178   By adding the tense-and-mood signs to the stem, there is formed a stem or base for each tense. To this tense-base are added the suffixes of person and number, as follows : —

Indicative and subjunctive.

179   Act.   1. -ŏm   2. -ĭs   3. -ĭt   1. -ĭmŭs   2. -ĭtĭs   3. -ŭnt

180   Pass.   1. -ŏr   2. -ĕrĭs   3. -ĭtŭr   1. -ĭmŭr   2. -ĭmĭnī   3. -ŭntŭr

[178] The initial short vowel of the mood-and-tense signs is regularly absorbed by a preceding open vowel; *e.g.*, **amā-bām** (= ama-ĕ́ba-m), **monē-re-m** (= mone-ĕ́re-m), etc. A preceding **i** either absorbs it, *e.g.*, **audī-re-m** (st. **audi-**), or drops before it, leaving a consonant-stem, *e.g.*, **cap-ĕ́re-m** (st. **capi-**). The signs **ĕbā, ĕb, ĕre-**, therefore, appear in the forms **bā, b, rē** after stems ending in **a, e,** or **i**. In the complete tenses the stem ends in **a, e,** or **i** only when **v** is dropped. In such cases the initial vowel of the sign is regularly absorbed by **a** or **e,** very rarely by **i.** See [215]. The long vowels **ā, ē, ī** are not absorbed, but **ī** contracts with a preceding **a** to **ē,** as stated in [172]. The loss of **ĕ** of the imp. subj. sign is a characteristic of certain irregular verbs. (See [220]).

The suffixes appear in the form given here after **u** or a consonant. After **a, e, i,** the initial vowel of the suffix is absorbed, making the preceding **a, e,** or **i** long. But **o** remains unabsorbed after stem-vowels, and itself absorbs the preceding **a ;** and **u** remains unabsorbed after the stem-vowel **i.**

The initial vowel of the person-and-number suffixes, strictly speaking, is not a part of them. Its origin is a matter of dispute; some regard it as a simple insertion to attach the suffixes to the tense base (*connecting vowel*) ; others as an addition to the stem to fit it for the reception of the suffixes (*modal vowel* or *thematic vowel*). Its omission is one peculiarity of certain irregular verbs. (See [220]).

[179] **m** of -ŏm falls when ŏ is unabsorbed. -ŭm for -ŏm is found in **sum.** -ŭmus, an older form of -ĭmus, is found in **sŭmus, qvaesŭmus, volŭmus.** -ĭnt for -ŭnt is found in the fut. perf., evidently by confusion with the perf. subj. -ĭs, -ĭmŭs, -ĭtĭs, due, no doubt, to the same cause, are not unusual in the fut. perf. for -ĭs, -ĭmŭs, -ĭtĭs.

[180] -ĕrĕ for ĕrĭs is not unusual in poetry ; rare in prose.

Imperative.

	2.	3.	2.	3.	
Act.	-ĕ, -ĭtō	-ĭtō	-ĭtĕ, -ĭtōtĕ	-untō	**181**
Pass.	-ĕrĕ, -ĭtŏr	-ĭtŏr	-ĭmĭnī	-untŏr	**182**

The suffixes of the non-finite forms are: —

(*a*) From the present stem.

Act. Pres. inf., -ĕrĕ; pres. part., -enti; gerund, -endo.	**183**
Pass. Pres. inf., -ĕrī; pres. part., -endo.	**184**

(*b*) From the perfect stem.

Act. Perf. inf. (-sĕ ? see below, 190).	**185**

(*c*) From the simple stem.

Act. Fut. part., -tūro- (-sūro-); supine, -tu- (-su-).	**186**
Pass. Perf. part., -to- (-so-).	**187**

The perfect indicative active and perfect infinitive active have peculiar endings not easily resolved into sign and suffix. They are: —	**188**

Perf. act. ind., -ī, -istī, -ĭt; -ĭmŭs, -istĭs, -ērunt.	**189**
Perf. act. inf., -issĕ.	**190**

[181] The imperative forms in -tō, -tōte, -ntō ; -tŏr, -ntŏr are sometimes called future imperative. They are antiquated forms, retained in poetry and legal phraseology, rare elsewhere.

[183] For -endo, -undo is found ; also for -enti, -unti in one verb (eo, " *go* ").

[184] For -ĕrī, -ī is found in consonant and u-stems. An older suffix -ĕriĕr (in consonant and u-stems, -iĕr), is found in old Latin.

[186] -ĭtūro-, -ĭtu-, -ĭto-, are found in some cases. This may have been the form after vowel-stems, the ĭ disappearing by absorption. -sūro, -su, -so, are euphonic changes of -tūro, -tu, -to, used after certain letters. (See [209]).

[188] The perf. act. ind. and inf. seem to have -īs or -ēs as mood-and-tense sign, and to add the suffixes directly to the tense-base without the suffix-vowel. But some forms are quite irregular, and the second sg. ind. shows a suffix -ti, not found elsewhere in the Latin verb.

[189] For -ērunt, -ērĕ is found, also rarely -ĕrunt.

The Conjugations.

191   There are five forms of conjugation for the incomplete tenses, according to the form of the stem. They are: —

> 1st. Stems in -**a.**
> 2d.   Stems in -**e.**
> 3d.   Stems in a consonant or in -**u.**
> 4th. Stems in short -**ĭ.**
> 5th. Stems in long -**ī.**

In the complete tenses there is but one form for all verbs.

192   The theme of the incomplete tenses is found by dropping the ending of the present infinitive.

193   The incomplete tenses are inflected by adding to the theme the following endings: —

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[191] The final **u** of verb-stems does not contract with the vowel of the suffix, and there is therefore no difference between **u**-stems and consonant-stems in their inflection. Compare monosyllabic noun **u**-stems, 112. These different forms of inflection, like the different declensions, are simply variations resulting from contraction of stem-ending and suffix-vowel. The stems in short -**ĭ** and long -**ī** are so called for convenience of distinction, since the **i** appears as short in one and long in the other. But it seems probable that the final vowel of all verb-stems is properly short, and that its length in the incomplete tenses is the result of absorbing the suffix-vowel. The usual arrangement of conjugations (see [168]) places short **ĭ**-stems with consonant and **u**-stems. As in **i**-stem nouns, the **ĭ** of these verb-stems is lost in certain forms, leaving a consonant-stem.

Only one form of conjugation is found in the complete tenses, because the perfect stem always ends in **u** or a consonant, and consequently no variation of form from contraction takes place. The few cases in which the perfect stem is made to end in **a, e,** or **i** by the loss of **v** are too rare to make a difference of conjugation.

A-STEMS.

	Present Active				Present Passive			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
Sg.								
1	ŏ̄	ĕm		Inf. ārĕ	ŏr	ĕr		Inf. ārī
2	ās	ēs	ā, ātŏ̄		ārĭs	ērĭs	ārĕ, ātŏr	
3	ăt	ĕt	ātŏ̄	Part. anti-	ātŭr	ētŭr	ātŏr	Part. ando-
Pl.								
1	āmŭs	ēmŭs		Ger. ando-	āmŭr	ēmŭr		
2	ātĭs	ētĭs	ātĕ, ātŏtĕ		āmĭnī	ēmĭnī	āmĭnī	
3	ant	ent	antŏ̄		antŭr	entŭr	antŏr	

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	Imperf. Active		Imperf. Passive		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
Sg.						
1	ābăm	ārĕm	ābăr	ārĕr	ābŏ̄	ābŏr
2	ābās	ārēs	ābārĭs	ārērĭs	ābĭs	ābĕrĭs
3	ābăt	ārĕt	ābātŭr	ārētŭr	ābĭt	ābĭtŭr
Pl.						
1	ābāmŭs	ārēmŭs	ābāmŭr	ārēmŭr	ābĭmŭs	ābĭmŭr
2	ābātĭs	ārētĭs	ābāmĭnī	ārēmĭnī	ābĭtĭs	ābĭmĭnī
3	ābant	ārent	ābantŭr	ārentŭr	ābunt	ābuntŭr

195

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.

Stem, ăma-; theme, ăm-.

[194] ACTIVE	ăm ŏ̄	am ĕm		am ā, am ātŏ̄	am ārĕ
	am ās	am ēs		am ātŏ̄	am āns, -ntĭs, etc.
	am ăt	am ĕt			am andī, etc.
	etc.	etc.		etc.	
PASSIVE	am ŏr	am ĕr		am ārĕ, am ātŏr	am ārī
	am ārĭs	am ērĭs		am ātŏr	am andŭs, ă, ŭm
	am ātŭr	am ētŭr			
	etc.	etc.		etc.	
[195] ACTIVE	am ābăm	am ārĕm		am ābŏ̄	
	am ābās	am ārēs		am ābĭs	
	am ābăt	am ārĕt		am ābĭt	
	etc.	etc.		etc.	
PASSIVE	am ābăr	am ārĕr		am ābŏr	
	am ābārĭs	am ārērĭs		am ābĕrĭs	
	am ābātŭr	am ārētŭr		am ābĭtŭr	
	etc.	etc.		etc.	

E-STEMS.

		Present Active.				Present Passive.			
		Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
196	Sg. 1	eō	eăm	ē, ētŏ̆	Inf. ērĕ̆	eŏr	eăr	ērĕ̆, ētŏr	Inf. ērī
	2	ēs	eās	ētŏ̆		ērĭs	eārĭs	ētŏr	
	3	ĕt	eăt		Part. enti-	ētŭr	eātŭr		Part. endo-
	Pl. 1	ēmŭs	eāmŭs	ētĕ, ētōtĕ		ēmŭr	eāmŭr	ēmĭnī	
	2	ētĭs	eātĭs	entŏ̆	Ger. endo-	ēmĭnī	eāmĭnī	entŏr	
	3	ent	eant			entŭr	eantŭr		

		Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.			Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
		Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.		Indic.	Indic.
197	Sg. 1	ēbăm	ērĕm	ēbăr	ērĕr		ēbŏ̄	ēbŏr
	2	ēbās	ērēs	ēbārĭs	ērērĭs		ēbĭs	ēbĕrĭs
	3	ēbăt	ērĕt	ēbātŭr	ērētŭr		ēbĭt	ēbĭtŭr
	Pl. 1	ēbāmŭs	ērēmŭs	ēbāmŭr	ērēmŭr		ēbĭmŭs	ēbĭmŭr
	2	ēbātĭs	ērētĭs	ēbāmĭnī	ērēmĭnī		ēbĭtĭs	ēbĭmĭnī
	3	ēbant	ērent	ēbantŭr	ērentŭr		ēbunt	ēbuntŭr

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.
Stem, mŏne- ; theme, mŏn-.

[196] ACTIVE
- mŏn eŏ̄   mon eăm   mon ē, mon ētŏ̄   mon ērĕ̆
- mon ēs   mon eās   mon ētŏ̄   mon ēns, -ntĭs, etc.
- mon ĕt   mon eăt   mon endī, etc.
- etc.   etc.   etc.

PASSIVE
- mon eŏr   mon eăr   mon ērĕ, mon ētŏr   mon ērī
- mon ērĭs   mon eārĭs   mon ētŏr   mon endŭs, ă, ŭm
- mon ētŭr   mon eātŭr   etc.
- etc.   etc.

[197] ACTIVE
- mon ēbăm   mon ērĕm   mon ēbŏ̄
- mon ēbās   mon ērēs   mon ēbĭs
- mon ēbăt   mon ērĕt   mon ēbĭt
- etc.   etc.   etc.

PASSIVE
- mon ēbăr   mon ērĕr   mon ēbŏr
- mon ēbārĭs   mon ērērĭs   mon ēbĕrĭs
- mon ēbātŭr   mon ērētŭr   mon ēbĭtŭr
- etc.   etc.   etc.

CONSONANT-STEMS AND *U*-STEMS.

	Present Active				Present Passive			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
Sg.				Inf.				
1	ŏ̆	ăm		ĕrĕ	ŏr	ăr		Inf.
2	ĭs	ās	ĕ, ĭtŏ̄		ĕrĭs	ārĭs	ĕrĕ, ĭtŏr	ī
3	ĭt	ăt	ĭtŏ̄	Part.	ĭtŭr	ātŭr	ĭtŏr	
Pl.				enti-				Part.
1	ĭmŭs	āmŭs			ĭmŭr	āmŭr		endo-
2	ĭtĭs	ātĭs	ĭtĕ, ĭtŏtĕ	Ger.	ĭmĭnī	āmĭnī	ĭmĭnī	
3	unt	ant	untŏ̄	endo-	untŭr	antŭr	untŏr	

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	Imperf. Active		Imperf. Passive		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
Sg.						
1	ēbăm	ĕrĕm	ēbăr	ĕrĕr	ăm	ăr
2	ēbās	ĕrēs	ēbārĭs	ĕrērĭs	ēs	ĕrĭs
3	ēbăt	ĕrĕt	ēbātŭr	ĕrĕtŭr	ĕt	ētŭr
Pl.						
1	ēbāmŭs	ĕrēmŭs	ēbāmŭr	ĕrēmŭr	ēmŭs	ēmŭr
2	ēbātĭs	ĕrētĭs	ēbāmĭnī	ĕrēmĭnī	ētĭs	ēmĭnī
3	ēbant	ĕrent	ēbantŭr	ĕrentŭr	ent	entŭr

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EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.
Stem, rĕg-; theme, rĕg-.

[198] ACTIVE { regŏ̄ ; regĭs ; etc. — regăm ; regās ; etc. — regĕ, regĭtŏ̄, etc. — regĕrĕ ; regēns, -ntĭs, etc. ; reg endī, etc.

PASSIVE { regŏr ; regĕrĭs ; etc. — regăr ; regārĭs ; etc. — regĕrĕ, regĭtŏr, etc. — regī ; reg endŭs, ă, ŭm

[199] ACTIVE { regēbăm ; regēbās ; etc. — regĕrĕm ; regĕrēs ; etc. — regăm ; regēs ; etc.

PASSIVE { regēbăr ; regēbārĭs ; etc. — regĕrĕr ; regĕrērĭs ; etc. — regăr ; regērĭs ; etc.

Stems in **-u** have the same endings as consonant-stems, the vowel being unabsorbed. *E.g.*, from the stem **trĭbu-** we have —

ACTIVE. trĭbuŏ̄, etc. tribuăm, etc. tribuĕ, etc. tribuĕrĕ, tribuēns, tribu endī.
PASSIVE. trĭbuŏr, etc. tribuăr, etc. tribuĕrĕ, etc. tribuī, tribu endŭs, ă, ŭm.
ACTIVE. trĭbuēbăm, etc. tribuĕrĕm, etc. tribuăm, etc.
PASSIVE. tribuēbăr, etc. tribuĕrĕr, etc. tribuăr, etc.

200   There are two forms of inflection of verb-stems in -i. In one, i is short and falls before a short syllable, leaving a consonant-stem; in the other, i absorbs the vowel of a following short syllable, and is long. In both, i stands before long syllables.

SHORT I-STEMS.

	Present Active.				Present Passive.			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
Sg.				Inf.	iŏr	iăr		Inf.
1	iŏ̄	iăm	ĕ, ı̆tŏ̄	ĕrĕ	ĕrı̆s	iārı̆s	ĕrĕ, ı̆tŏr	ī
2	ı̆s	iās	ı̆tŏ̄		ı̆tŭr	iātŭr	ı̆tŏr	
3	ı̆t	iăt		Part.	ı̆mŭr	iāmŭr		Part.
Pl.			ı̆tĕ, ı̆tōtĕ	ienti-	ı̆mı̆nī	iāmı̆nī	ı̆mı̆nī	iendo-
1	ı̆mŭs	iāmŭs		Ger.				
2	ı̆tı̆s	iātı̆s	iuntŏ̆	iendo-	iuntŭr	iantŭr	iuntŏr	
3	iunt	iant						

	Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
Sg.						
1	iēbăm	ĕrĕm	iēbăr	ĕrĕr	iăm	iăr
2	iēbăs	ĕrēs	iēbārı̆s	ĕrērı̆s	iēs	iērı̆s
3	iēbăt	ĕrēt	iēbātŭr	ĕrētŭr	iĕt	iētŭr
Pl.						
1	iēbāmŭs	ĕrēmŭs	iēbāmŭr	ĕrēmŭr	iēmŭs	iēmŭr
2	iēbātı̆s	ĕrētı̆s	iēbāmı̆nī	ĕrēmı̆nī	iētı̆s	iēmı̆nī
3	iēbant	ĕrent	iēbantŭr	ĕrentŭr	ient	ientŭr

[200] The i before the long vowel remains, though the vowel be shortened before final **m, t, r,** see [12] (*a*), and falls in the pres. inf. pass. where the proper ending -ĕrı̆ has been shortened to -ī.

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.   Stem, căpı̆- or căp- (by dropping i); theme, căp-.

[201] ACTIVE
- căp iŏ̄ — căp iăm — căp ĕ, căp ı̆tŏ̄ — căp ĕrĕ
- căp ı̆s — căp iās — căp ı̆tŏ̄ — căp iēns, -ntı̆s, etc.
- căp ı̆t — căp iăt — etc. — căp iendī, etc.
- etc. — etc.

PASSIVE
- căp iŏr — căp iăr — căp ĕrĕ, căp ı̆tŏr — căp ī
- căp ĕrı̆s — căp iārı̆s — căp ı̆tŏr — căp iendŭs, ă, ŭm
- căp ı̆tŭr — căp iātŭr — etc.
- etc. — etc.

LONG *I*-STEMS.

	Present Active.				Present Passive.			
	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Imper.	Non-finite.
Sg.								
1	iŏ̄	iăm		Inf.	iŏr	iăr		
2	īs	iās	ī, ītō	īrĕ	īrĭs	iārĭs	īrĕ, ītŏr	Inf.
3	ĭt	iăt	ītŏ̄	Part.	ītŭr	iātŭr	ītŏr	īrī
Pl.				ienti-				Part.
1	īmŭs	iāmŭs			īmŭr	iāmŭr		iendo-
2	ītĭs	iātĭs	ītĕ, ītōtĕ	Ger.	īmĭnī	iāmĭnī	īmĭnī	
3	iunt	iant	iuntŏ̄	iendo-	iuntŭr	iantŭr	iuntŏr	

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	Imperf. Active.		Imperf. Passive.		Fut. Act.	Fut. Pas.
	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Indic.
Sg.						
1	iēbăm	īrēm	iēbăr	īrĕr	iăm	iăr
2	iēbās	īrēs	iēbārĭs	īrērĭs	iēs	iērĭs
3	iēbăt	īrĕt	iēbātŭr	īrētŭr	iĕt	iētŭr
Pl.						
1	iēbāmŭs	īrēmŭs	iēbāmŭr	īrēmŭı	iēmŭs	iēmŭr
2	iēbātĭs	īrētĭs	iēbāmĭnī	īrēmĭnī	iētĭs	iēmĭnī
3	iēbant	īrent	iēbantŭr	īrentŭr	ient	ientŭr

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[202] ACTIVE   cap iēbăm   cap ĕrĕm   cap iăm
                cap iēbās   cap ĕrēs   cap iēs
                etc.   etc.   etc.

      PASSIVE   cap iēbăr   cap ĕrĕr   cap iăr
                 cap iēbārĭs   cap ĕrērĭs   cap iērĭs
                 etc.   etc.   etc.

EXAMPLE FOR PRACTICE.   Stem, **audi-**; theme, **aud-**.

[203] ACTIVE   aud iŏ̄   aud iăm
               aud īs   aud iās   aud ī, aud ītŏ̄   aud īrĕ
               aud ĭt   aud iăt   aud ītŏ̄   aud iēns, -ntĭs, etc.
               etc.   etc.   etc.   aud iendī, etc.

      PASSIVE   aud iŏr   aud iăr
                aud īrĭs   aud iārĭs   aud īre, aud ītŏr   aud īrī
                aud ītŭr   aud iātŭr   aud ītŏr   aud iendŭs, ă, ŭm
                etc.   etc.   etc.

[204] ACTIVE   aud iēbăm   aud īrĕm
               aud iēbās   aud īrēs   aud iăm
               aud iēbăt   aud īrĕt   aud iēs
               etc.   etc.   aud iĕt
                                          etc.

      PASSIVE   aud iēbăr   aud īrĕr
               aud iēbārĭs   aud īrērĭs   aud iăr
               aud iēbātŭr   aud īrētur   aud iērĭs
               etc.   etc.   aud iētŭr
                                          etc.

205 The theme of the complete tenses is found by dropping the ending of the perfect indicative active, first person singular.

The endings are the same for all verbs; viz. : —

		Perfect Active.			Pluperfect Active.		Fut. Perf. Active.
		Indic.	Subj.	Non-finite.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.
206	*Sg.* 1	ī	ĕrĭm		ĕrăm	issĕm	ĕrŏ̄
	2	istī	ĕrĭs		ĕrās	issēs	ĕrĭs
	3	ĭt	ĕrĭt	Inf.	ĕrăt	issĕt	ĕrĭt
	Pl. 1	ĭmŭs	ĕrĭmŭs	issĕ	ĕrāmŭs	issēmŭs	ĕrĭmŭs
	2	istĭs	ĕrĭtĭs		ĕrātĭs	issētĭs	ĕrĭtĭs
	3	ērunt	ĕrint		ĕrant	issent	ĕrint

207 The lacking complete tenses of the passive voice are supplied, as in English, by the perfect passive participle and the verb "be."

[206] The theme of the complete tenses ends in **u** or a consonant, and the vowel of the endings therefore remains unabsorbed, except when brought after a vowel by the loss of **v.** See [215].

EXAMPLES FOR PRACTICE.

Stem ămāv-	ămāvī	amavĕrĭm		amavĕrăm	amavissĕm	amavĕrŏ̄
	amavistī	amavĕrĭs	amavissĕ	amavĕrās	amavissēs	amavĕrĭs
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
" **mŏnu-**	mŏnuī	monuĕrĭm	monuissĕ	monuĕrăm	monuissĕm	monuĕrŏ̄
		etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
" **rex-**	rexī	rexĕrĭm	rexissĕ	rexĕrăm	rexissĕm	rexĕrŏ̄ ·
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
" **trĭbu-**	trĭbuī	tribuĕrĭm	tribuissĕ	tribuĕrăm	tribuissĕm	tribuĕrŏ̄
		etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.
" **cēp-**	cēpī	cepĕrĭm	cepissĕ	cepĕrăm	cepissĕm	cepĕrŏ̄
	etc.	etc.		etc.	etc.	etc.
" **audīv-**	audīvī	audivĕrĭm	audivissĕ	audivĕrăm	audivissĕm	audivĕrŏ̄
	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

For the variation between ī and ĭ in the perf. subj. and fut. perf. ind., see [175] and [179].

The theme of the verb-forms from the simple stem **208**
may be found by dropping the ending of the supine
or of the perfect passive participle.

The endings of the forms from the simple stem
are : —

	Supine.	Future Active Participle.	Perf. Pass. Participle.
A-stems . . .	ātu-	ātūro-	āto-
E-stems . . .	ētu-	ētūro-	ēto-
I-stems	ītu-	ītūro-	īto-
O-stems . . .	ōtu-	ōtūro-	ōto-
U-stems . . .	ūtu-	ūtūro-	ūto-
Consonant-stems {	tu- (su-), or ĭtu-	tūro- (sūro-), or ĭtūro-	to- (so-), or ĭto-

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[209] The endings -ĭtu-, -ĭtūro-, -ĭto-, though less common in consonant-stems, seem to be the usual form of the suffixes in vowel-stems, — the long vowel being due to the absorption of the ĭ of the suffix. In a few cases, however, vowel-stems show a short vowel in these endings, which may be explained by assuming that the suffix is appended directly to the stem without the vowel, as in most consonant stems. These cases number in all twelve ; viz.: **dătus, rătus, sătus, stătus ; cĭtus, ĭtus, lĭtus, qvĭtus, sĭtus ; -clŭtus, fŭturus, rŭtus.**

Su-, sūro-, so-, are euphonic changes of **tu-, tūro-, to-.** They are used after stems ending in a dental-mute (except **tend-,** which has forms with both **t** and **s,** apparently by confusion with its kindred stem **tĕn-**) and after a few others, especially stems ending in two consonants with which an added **t** could not easily be pronounced. See [12]. The real form of the stem is often obscured before these suffixes by euphonic change.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Stem **ăma-**	amātŭm, amātŭ	amātūrŭs, ă, ŭm	amātŭs, ă, ŭm
" **dēle-**	delētum, delētu	delētūrus, a, um	delētus, a, um
" **audi-**	audītum, audītu	audītūrus, a, um	audītus, a, um
" **no-**	nōtum, nōtu	nōtūrus, a, um	nōtus, a, um
" **trĭbu-**	tribūtum, tribūtu	tribūtūrus, a, um	tribūtus, a, um
" **căp-**	captum, captu	captūrus, a, um	captus, a, um
" **hăb-**	habĭtum, habĭtu	habĭtūrus, a, um	habĭtus, a, um
" **lūd-**	lūsum, lūsū	lūsūrus, a, um	lūsus, a, um

210   The participles with the verb "be" are often used as in English with the force of finite verb-forms.

211   The present active participle is thus used only when it has become an adjective or noun in force and meaning.

212   The future active participle with the verb "be" makes the "first" or "active" periphrastic conjugation, and expresses an intended or destined action.

213   The present passive participle with the verb "be" makes the "second" or "passive" periphrastic conjugation, and expresses duty or necessity.

214   The perfect passive participle with the verb "be" supplies the lacking complete tenses of the passive voice.

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[210] For the inflection of the verb "be," see [221].

[212] *E.g.*,

auditūrŭs sŭm, *I am going to hear; expect to hear; intend to hear*, etc.
auditūrŭs ĕrăm, *I was going to hear; expected to hear; intended to hear*, etc.
This form supplies the lacking subjunctive and infinitive of the future tense, when such forms are needed for precision.

[213] **audiendŭs sŭm,** *I must be heard; ought to be heard*, etc.
     audiendŭs ĕrăm, *I had to be heard; deserved to be heard*, etc.

[214]

Perf. pass. ind.	ămātŭs	sŭm	Perf. pass. subj.	amātŭs	sĭm
	"	ĕs		"	sīs
	"	est		"	sĭt
	amatī	sŭmŭs		amatī	sīmŭs
	"	estĭs		"	sītĭs
	"	sunt		"	sint
Plup. pass. ind.	amātŭs	ĕrăm	Plup. pass. subj.	amātŭs	essĕm
	"	erās		"	essēs
	"	erăt		"	essĕt
	amatī	erāmŭs		amatī	essēmŭs
	"	erātĭs		"	essētĭs
	"	erant		"	essent
Fut. pf. pass. ind.	amātŭs	erō̆			
	"	erĭs			
	"	erĭt	Perf. pass. inf.	amātŭs	essĕ
	amatī	erĭmŭs			
	"	erĭtis			
	"	erunt			

Irregular Verb-Forms.

The **v** used to form the perfect stem is sometimes | **215**
dropped between vowels. See [12] (*c*).

The ending of the imperative active second singu- | **216**
lar is dropped in the verbs **dīco, dūco, făcio,** thus
making **dīc, dūc, făc.**

Instead of the incomplete tenses of **sŭm** the complete tenses are some-
times used to make the perf., plup. and fut. perf. passive, with little or
no difference of meaning; *e.g.,* amatus fui = amatus sum; amatus fueram
= amatus eram, etc. In all these periphrastic conjugations the participle
is an adjective limiting the subject of the verb "be," and takes the same
gender, number and case. See 255.

[215] An open vowel before **v** absorbs the following vowel after **v** falls;
a close vowel does so rarely. Thus **amāvisti** becomes **ămāsti; flēvisti**
becomes **flēsti; nōvĕram** becomes **nōram,** etc. But **audīvĕram** be-
comes **audiĕram,** etc.

A similar shortening in perfects formed with -s is rarer, — **scripsti** for
scripsisti; dixe for **dixisse,** etc.

[216] The same loss of the imperative ending takes place also in the
verbs **sŭm, ĕdo, fĕro, vŏlo,** but is part of a peculiar irregularity. (See
220.) In old Latin, and in compounds of **facio,** the regular forms are
found.

Other irregularities are rarer, and belong generally to the older language
or to poetry. A list is given for reference : —

(*a*) In stems in -i the imperf. and fut. ind. are sometimes formed with
the signs **ĕbā** and **ĕb ;** regularly so in **eo,** "go." See [227].

(*b*) An old fut. (or fut. perf. ?) formed with the sign -s (or -ss), a subj.
with the sign -sī (or -ssī), and an infin. with the ending -sere (or -ssere),
are found in old writers.

(*c*) An old imper. pass. sg. ending -**mĭno** (corresponding to the pl. end-
ing -**mĭnī**) is also found, and the active ending -**to** seems sometimes to
have a passive sense.

(*d*) For the suffix -**erĕ** = -**erĭs,** see [180].

(*e*) For the perf. ind. act. ending -**ērĕ** = **ērunt,** see [189].

(*f*) For the ending -**undī,** etc., in the gerund, and -**undus, -a, -um,** in
the pres. pass. part., see [183].

217   The verbs **sŭm, ĕdo, fĕro, vŏlo, do, eo, queo, fīo,** and their compounds, have special irregularities in the incomplete tenses, chiefly in : —

218   (*a*) Variation of the stem.

219   (*b*) Use of mood-and-tense signs unusual in stems of like form.

220   (*c*) Omission of the initial vowel of the mood-and-tense sign, or of the suffix. This occurs in **sŭm, ĕdo, fĕro, vŏlo,** which omit the initial vowel of the imperfect subjunctive sign, and the initial vowel of the suffix in the following forms ; viz.: —

>   Present indicative, 2d and 3d sg. and 2d plural.
>   Present imperative, 2d and 3d sg. and 2d plural.
>   Present infinitive.

221   **Sŭm** (stem **ĕs-**) omits the vowel, uses **ī** as present subjunctive sign, loses initial **e** in certain forms, and retains older endings not found in the usual conjugations.

(*g*) **Audeo, fīdo, gaudeo, soleo,** have a passive form in the complete tenses, and are called semi-deponents.

(*h*) **Morior, orior, potior,** show a variation between long ī-stem forms and short ĭ-stem forms.

[220] The omission of the **ĕ** of the imperf. subj. sign **-ĕrē** causes it to take the form **-sē** in **sum** and **ĕdo,** and **-lē** in **volo.** **Sē** was, no doubt, the original form ; **lē** arises by assimilation of **-r** to the preceding **-l.** The same change takes place in the pres. infin.

[221] **Sŭm, esse, fui, fŭtūrŭs.**

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
sŭm	sĭm			ĕrăm	essĕm	ĕrŏ̆
ĕs	sīs	ĕs, esto	esse	erās	essēs	erĭs
est	sĭt	esto		erăt	essĕt	erĭt
sŭmŭs	sīmŭs		[-sens]	erāmus	essēmus	erĭmus
estĭs	sītĭs	estĕ, estōtĕ		erātis	essētis	erĭtis
sunt	sint	sunto		erant	essent	erunt

Compounds of **sŭm** are like **sŭm**, except **possŭm**, | **222**
which contracts in certain forms.

Edo (stem **ĕd-**) omits the vowel (with consequent | **223**
euphonic change of **d** to **s**), and has present subjunc-
tive sign **ī**. It has also the regular forms.

For **sim, sīs,** etc., an older form — **siem, sies,** etc. — is found. The
2d sg. pres. ind. **ĕs** stands for **es-s** (see [12] (*b*)), and is long in old Latin **ēs**,
the result of the loss of the suffix. (See 362.) The pres. part. **-sens** is
found only in the compounds, **ab-sens** and **prae-sens.**

The complete tenses are formed from a stem **fu-**, which appears as the
simple stem also in **fŭ-tūrus.** From this stem is formed a pres. subj.
fuam, etc.; and from another form of it, **fo-,** is formed an imperf. subj.
fŏrem, etc., and an infin. **fŏre. Fŏre** has a future sense, as have also the
old inceptive forms **escit, escunt** (= es-sc-it, es-sc-unt). For perfect stem
the older language has also **fūv-.**

[222] Possŭm, possĕ, pŏtui.

PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
possŭm	possĭm		pŏtĕrăm	possĕm	pŏtĕrō
potĕs	possīs	possĕ	pŏtĕrās	possēs	poterĭs
potest	possĭt		etc.	possĕt	poterĭt
possŭmus	possīmus			etc.	poterĭmŭs
potestis	possītis				poterĭtĭs
possunt	possint				poterunt

Possiem, etc., is found for **possim,** etc.; also the uncontracted **pot-**
essem for **possem. Possum** is for **pot-sum** by assimilation of **t,** which
appears in its proper form before a vowel. The imperative and the
participle are wanting.

Prosum is like **sum,** but the preposition **prō** keeps its original form,
prōd, before those forms that begin with a vowel, — **pro-sum, prod-ĕs,**
prod-est, pro-sŭmŭs, etc.

[223] Edo, ĕdĕre, ēdi, ēsum. The irregular forms are: —

PRESENT.				IMP. SUBJ.	
—	ĕdĭm			essĕm	
ĕs	ĕdīs	ĕs, esto		essēs	PRES. PASS. IND.
est	etc.	esto	INFINITIVE.	essĕt	estŭr
—			essĕ	etc.	
estĭs		este, estōte			IMPERF. PASS. SUBJ.
—		—			essētŭr

Also regular **ĕdo, -ĭs, -ĭt,** etc., like **rego.** See [198].

224	Fĕro (stem **fĕr-**) omits the vowel, and retains the original present passive infinitive suffix -**rī**, usually lost in consonant-stems.
225	Vŏlo (stem **vŏl-**) omits the vowel, has present subjunctive sign **ī**, and varies the stem to **vul, vel, vil.** Its compounds **nōlo** and **mālo** have the same irregularities, and suffer contraction in many forms.

[224] **Fĕro, ferre, tŭlī, lātum.**

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
ferō̆	ferăm		INF.	ferēbăm	ferrĕm	ferăm
fers	ferās	fĕr, ferto	ferrĕ	ferēbās	ferrēs	ferēs
fert	etc.	ferto	PART.	etc.	etc.	etc.
ferĭmus			ferens			
fertĭs		fertĕ, fertōtĕ	GER.			
ferunt		ferunto	ferendi			

Ferŏr, ferrī, lātus.

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
ferŏr	ferăr			ferēbăr	ferrĕr	ferăr
ferrĭs	ferāris	ferrĕ, fertŏr	INF.	ferēbārĭs	ferērĭs	ferēris
fertur	etc.	fertŏr	ferrī	etc.	etc.	etc.
ferĭmur			PART.			
ferĭmĭnī		ferĭmĭnī	ferendus			
feruntŭr		feruntŏr				

For perfect stem **fĕro** uses **tŭl;** for simple stem, **lā** (older **tla**). Both are variations of a stem seen also in **tollo.** **Ferimini** (ind. and imper.) retains the vowel, but the 2d pl. pass. was originally a participial formation, not a finite form.

[225] **Vŏlo, velle, vŏlui.**

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
vŏlō̆	vĕlĭm		INF.	vŏlēbăm	vellĕm	vŏlăm
vīs	vĕlīs	(vel, used as a	vellĕ	volēbās	vellēs	volēs
vult	vĕlĭt	conjunction)	PART.	etc.	etc.	etc.
vŏlŭmŭs	velīmus		vŏlens			
vultĭs	etc.		GER.			
vŏlunt			volendi			

Nōlo, nolle, nōlui.

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
nōlo	nōlĭm		INF.	nōlēbăm	nollĕm	[nolam]
(nĕvīs)	nōlīs	nōlī, nōlīto	nolle	nōlēbās	nollēs	nōlēs
(nĕvult)	etc.	nōlīto	PART.	etc.	etc.	etc.
nōlŭmŭs			nōlens			
[nevultis]		nolīte, nōlītōtĕ	GER.			
nōlunt		nolunto	nōlendi			

Do (stem **da-**) omits the vowel of the suffix in the | **226**
present tense and the vowel of the mood-and-tense
sign in the imperfect and future, and consequently
has short ă throughout, where a-stems usually have
long ā. Most of its compounds lose this ă, and thus
become consonant-stems.

Eo (stem **i-**) varies the stem to **e** before a vowel | **227**
(except before **e** in the present active participle),

Nĕvīs, nĕvult, are old. The imperative (except 3d pl.) is from a stem
noli.

Mālo, malle, mālui.

	PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
mālo	mālim			mālēbam	mallem	[malam]
māvīs	mālīs		INF.	mālēbas	mallēs	mālēs
māvult	etc.	(Imperative	malle	etc.	etc.	mālet
mālŭmŭs		wanting.)	GER.			etc.
māvultīs			malendi			
mālŭnt						

Mavŏlo, mavĕlim, etc. (uncontracted), are old. The bracketed forms
are lacking.

[226] Do, dărĕ, dĕdī, dătum. Its inflection is like that of **amo,**
except that the final vowel of the stem is everywhere short. (The forms
dās, dā, are lengthened by a general tendency to lengthen certain syl-
lables. See 360, 361.) Only the form **do** has the suffix vowel. The
quantity of the stem-vowel is seen, for example, in dămus, dăbit, dăbitur,
dăbāmus, etc. Another form of the same stem, **du-,** gives a subjunctive
duam, duas, etc.; or duim, duis, etc.

Do remains unchanged in circumdo, pessumdo, satisdo and ve-
numdo. These are not full compounds, and are often written separately.
In the future, the original form (e.g., red-dĭbo, etc.) is sometimes found
in the consonant-stem compounds.

[227] Eo, īre, īvī, ĭtum.

	PRESENT.			IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
eo	eam		INF.	ībăm	īrĕm	ībŏ̄
īs	eās	ī, ĭto	īre	ībās	īrēs	ībĭs
ĭt	eăt	ĭto	PART.	etc.	etc.	etc.
īmus	eāmus		iens, euntis, etc.			
ītis	eātis	ĭtĕ, ītōtĕ	GER.			
eunt	eant	eunto	iendi, etc.			

and forms the imperfect and future indicative with the signs **ĕbā** and **ĕb,** like **a-** and **e-**stems.

228   **Qveo** (stem **qvi-**) and its compound **neqveo** are like **eo.**

229   **Fīo** (stem **fī-**) keeps the vowel **ĕ** unabsorbed in the present infinitive and imperfect subjunctive. In all other forms the stem-vowel is long, even before a vowel. The present infinitive is passive in form.

Impersonal and Defective Verbs.

230   Impersonal verbs are such as do not take a personal subject. They are found only in the third person singular, and comprise : —

231   (*a*) Verbs referring to the state of the weather.

232   (*b*) A few verbs expressing feeling or emotion, the object of which denotes the person who experiences the feeling.

233   (*c*) Verbs which take a clause or an infinitive as subject. Many of these are also used personally.

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[228] **Qveo, qvīre, qvīvī, qvĭtum.** So **neqveo, neqvīre,** etc. Only a few forms are in use.

[229] **Fīo, fīĕrī,** [factus].

PRESENT.				IMPERFECT.		FUTURE.
fīo	fīăm			fīēbăm	fīĕrĕm	fīăm
fīs	fīās	fī		fīēbās	fīĕrēs	fīēs
fīt	etc.		INFINITIVE.	etc.	etc.	etc.
fīmus			fīĕrī			
fītis		fītĕ				
fīunt						

Fīo is passive in meaning, and is used as the passive of **făcio,** which supplies the lacking participle and the complete tenses. In old Latin **fīĕrĕm,** etc., and **fīĕrī** occur.

[231] *E.g.,* **pluit,** *it rains;* **ningit,** *it snows,* etc.

[232] *E.g.,* **pudet me,** (*it shames me,* i.e.) *I am ashamed,* etc.

[233] *E.g.,* **mihi ire licet,** (*to go is permitted to me*) *I am permitted to go,* etc.

(*d*) Many intransitive verbs, which may be used impersonally in the passive. **234**

Some verbs are defective in Latin. Of these only **ōdi** and **mĕmĭni** need special mention. They lack the incomplete tenses, and the complete tenses have the time of the incomplete. **235**

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[234] *E.g.*, **pugnātur**, (*it is fought*) *there is fighting going on;* **invidētur mihi**, (*it is envied toward me*) *I am envied;* **ĭtur**, (*it is gone*) *people go*, etc.

[235] The forms of the most usual defective verbs are added for reference : —

1. **ājo, aĭs, aĭt, ājunt.** Imperf. **ājēbam** or **aībam**, etc.; subj. **ājās, ājăt;** part. **ājens.**

2. Imperat. **ăve, ăvēto, ăvēte;** inf. **ăvēre.**

3. **fātur.** Imperat. **fāre;** fut. **fābor, fābĭtur;** inf. **fārī;** sup. **fātu;** part. **fans, fandus, fātus.**

4. **inqvam, inqvĭs, inqvĭt; inqvĭmus, inqviunt.** Imperat. **inqve, inqvĭto, inqvĭte;** imperf. **inqviēbat;** fut. **inqviēs, inqvĭět;** perf. **inqvii, inqvisti, inqvit.**

5. **mĕmĭni;** the complete tenses, and an imperat. **memento, mementōte.** In compounds the incomplete tenses are found; *e.g.*, **re-mĭn-isc-or,** etc.

6. **ōdi;** only the complete tenses and part. **ōsūrus.**

7. Subj. **ŏvet, ŏvāret;** part. **ŏvans, ŏvātus;** ger. **ŏvandi.**

8. Imperat. **salve, salvēte;** inf. **salvēre;** fut. **salvēbis.**

Many verbs lack the forms from the simple stem or those from the perfect stem, and some lack both. Impersonal verbs lack all forms except the third personal singular; and intransitive verbs, except in the use mentioned above (234), of course lack the passive voice altogether. Such are not usually called defective, however, but the name is limited to those given here.

PART III. — WORD-FORMATION.

Roots and Stems.

236   A root is a simple sound, or combination of sounds, used in language to convey an idea without modification.

237   Roots are sometimes used in Latin as stems, and the suffixes of inflection joined to them directly. Usually, however, stems are formed from roots by vowel-change, or by the addition of a vowel, **a, e, i, o, u ;** sometimes by both.

238   Stems formed from roots in either of these three

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[237] Many verbs with consonant-stems, and a few with stems in **-a, -e** or **-i,** use an unmodified root as a stem. Most verbs with vowel-stems, however, use a primitive stem, or, far more often, a derivative stem as the verb-stem. The **a, e** or **i** added to form the present stem is, of course, no part of the verb-stem, but only a modification used in the incomplete tenses. The final **a, e** or **i** of the present stem belongs to the verb-stem only when it shows itself also in the perfect stem and in the simple stem.

Very few nouns and no adjectives have roots as stems.

[238] Final vowels of stems (except **u** sometimes) are dropped before suffixes beginning with a vowel, and are often weakened (and sometimes dropped) before those that begin with a consonant. Before some of the latter, however, the vowel is lengthened, perhaps by the absorption of an initial vowel, which generally appears when they are appended to consonant-stems. Compare the usage in the case of the verb-suffixes, 170–190.

Initial **t** of a suffix suffers the euphonic change to **s** after certain letters, as in the supine and participles of the verb.

ways are called primitive stems. From these, deriva-
tive stems are formed by adding suffixes of derivation.
Both primitive and derivative stems, by the addition
of suffixes of inflection, become words of the language,
fitted for use in sentences.

Formation of Nouns.

Nouns are formed from other nouns with a variety | **239**
of suffixes and meanings.

Nouns formed from adjectives express the quality | **240**
or condition denoted by the adjective.

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[239] The most common suffixes are these : —
  -**ātu** (= Eng. -*ship*), name of office or condition of the primitive.
  -**ēto, -ārio,** name of place where the primitive is found.
  -**tūt** (= Eng. -*hood*), name of condition or quality of the primitive.
  -**io,** name of condition or quality of the primitive.
  -**lo, -la** (= Eng. -*let*), diminutive nouns.
  -**cŭlo, -cŭla** (= Eng. -*let*), diminutive nouns.

Illustrations are : —

consul-ātus, *consulship ;*	from	**consul,** *a consul.*
qverc-ētum, *oak forest ;*	"	**qvercus,** *an oak.*
vir-tus, *manhood ;*	"	**vir,** *a man.*
minister-ium, *service ;*	"	**minister,** *a servant.*
vicŭ-lus, *hamlet ;*	"	**vicus,** *a village.*
casŭ-la, *cottage ;*	"	**casa,** *a house.*
flos-cŭlus, *floweret ;*	"	**flos,** *a flower.*
securi-cŭla, *hatchet ;*	"	**securis,** *an axe.*

[240] The more usual suffixes are -**tāt, -tūdĭn, -ia, -tia** (= Eng. -*ness*).
Illustrations are : —

superb-ia, *pride ;*	from	**superbus,** *proud.*
soli-tūdo, *loneliness ;*	"	**solus,** *alone.*
boni-tas, *goodness ;*	"	**bonus,** *good.*
justi-tia, *justice ;*	"	**justus,** *just.*

241 | Nouns from verbs denote the *doer*, *means*, *result*, *place*, *instrument*, etc., of the action, or the action itself.

Formation of Adjectives.

242 | Adjectives formed from nouns are usually "possessive" adjectives, expressing "possessed of," "full of,"

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[241] The most usual suffixes are: —

-tōr (sōr), -trĭc (= Eng. -er, -ster), name of the doer.

-tu (-su), -tūra (-sūra), -tiōn (-siōn), -io, -iōn, -ōr, -mĭn, -mento, -cŭlo, name of the act, means, result.

-bŭlo, -tro, name of the place, means, instrument.

Illustrations are: —

audī-tor, *hearer;*	from	**audī-re,** *to hear.*
lu-sor, *player;*	"	**lud-ere,** *to play.*
al-trix, *nourisher;*	"	**al-ere,** *to nourish.*
ic-tus, *blow;*	"	**ic-ere,** *to strike.*
arā-tio, *ploughing;*	"	**ara-re,** *to plough.*
effug-ium, *escape;*	"	**effug-ere,** *to escape.*
suspic-io, *suspicion;*	"	**suspic-ere,** *to suspect.*
am-or, *love;*	"	**ama-re,** *to love.*
certā-men, *fight;*	"	**certa-re,** *to fight.*
vesti-mentum, *clothing;*	"	**vesti-re,** *to clothe.*
specta-cŭlum, *spectacle;*	"	**specta-re,** *to view.*
sta-bŭlum, *stall;*	"	**sta-re,** *to stand.*
ara-trum, *plough;*	"	**ara-re,** *to plough.*

[242] Adjectives thus formed correspond to English derivative adjectives in *-ish, -y, -ed, -ful, -en*, etc. The suffixes used to form them are very numerous; the most common are -āto, -do, -no, -āno, -īno, -āli, -īli, -āri, -ārio, -āti, -ensi, -ōso, -lento, -co, -io, -eo, -aceo.

Illustrations are: —

aur-atus, *gilded;*	from	**aurum,** *gold.*
luctu-ōsus, *sorrowful;*	"	**luctus,** *sorrow.*
Rom-ānus, *Roman;*	"	**Roma,** *Rome.*
aur-eus, *golden;*	"	**aurum,** *gold.*
ebur-nus, *ivory;*	"	**ebur,** *ivory.*
mort-ālis, *mortal;*	"	**mors,** *death.*
etc.		etc.

"furnished with," "made of," "characterized by," "belonging to," and the like.

243 Adjectives from other adjectives are derivative numerals, comparatives and superlatives, and diminutives.

244 Adjectives from verbs are the regular participles, adjectives with the force of participles (usually active), and adjectives denoting capability (usually passive).

Formation of Verbs.

245 A few verbs are formed from noun- or adjective-stems by using the theme of the noun as a verb-stem.

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[243] For the ordinal and distributive numerals, with their suffixes, see [118]; and for the comparative and superlative formations, see 119 ff. Diminutive adjectives have the suffixes -lo and -culo, like diminutive nouns.

> *E.g.*, **albŭlus**, *whitish*, from **albus**, *white*.
>
> **fortĭcŭlus**, *boldish, somewhat bold*, from **fortis**, *bold*.

[244] For the regular participles and their endings see 183–187. Adjectives with the general force of participles, but expressing a habit rather than a single act, are formed with the suffixes -uo, -īvo, -tīvo, -do, -bundo, -cundo, -aci, etc. Illustrations are : —

> **contig-uus**, *touching, adjacent;*   from **conting-ere**, *to touch.*
> **cad-īvus**, *falling, fleeting;*   "   **cad-ere**, *to fall.*
> **nomina-tīvus**, *nominative;*   "   **nomina-re**, *to name.*
> **erra-bundus**, *wandering, vagrant;*   "   **erra-re**, *to wander.*

Adjectives denoting capability are formed with the suffixes -li, -bĭli, -tĭli (-sĭli). Illustrations are : —

> **frag-īlis**, *breakable, frail;*   from **frang-ere**, *to break.*
> **cred-ibĭlis**, *credible;*   "   **cred-ere**, *to believe.*
> **fer-tĭlis**, *fertile, capable of producing;*   "   **fer-re**, *to produce.*

[245] Thus, from **flor** (theme of **flos**, *a flower*) we have **flor-ēre**, *to flower;* from **arbŏr** (theme of **arbos**, *a tree*), **arbor-esc-ere**, *to become a tree;* from **dulc** (theme of **dulcis**, *sweet*), **dulc-esc-ere**, *to grow sweet*, etc. That the **e** of the present stem does not belong to the verb-stem, but is a formative addition, is shown by the form of the perfect stem, when one exists (*e.g.*, **flor-ui**). But most of these verbs have only the incomplete tenses.

In such verbs the present stem is formed by adding -e, or by adding -esc. In the former case the verb means "to be [so-and-so]"; in the latter, "to become [so-and-so]."

246 More often verb-stems are formed from noun- or adjective-stems by adding -a or -i to the theme. Verbs thus formed usually mean "to make [so-and-so]"; less often, "to be [so-and-so]."

247 Verbs formed from verbs are frequentatives, intensives, or desideratives.

[246] Thus, from **bellum,** *war,* **bellare,** *to war;* from **aeqvus,** *level,* **aeqvare,** *to level;* from **miles,** *soldier,* **militare,** *to be a soldier;* from **tenuis,** *thin,* **tenuare,** *to make thin;* from **insanus,** *mad,* **insanire,** *to be mad;* from **finis,** *end,* **finire,** *to end,* etc.

From stems in **u,** a-stem verbs are formed by adding **a** to the stem, not the theme; *e.g.,* **aestu-are** from **aestu-s.** But **i** is added to the theme in u-stems, as in others. See [238].

[247] Frequentatives denote a frequent or emphatic action. They are formed with the suffix -ta. Many verbs formed in this way, however, have lost the frequentative force. Illustrations are: —

adven-tare, *to come often;*	from **adven-ire,** *to come.*
rog-itare, *to ask eagerly;*	" **rog-are,** *to ask.*
dic-tare, *to say frequently;*	" **dic-ere,** *to say.*
dict-itare, *to say frequently;*	" **dict-are,** *to say.*

Intensives denote an eager or earnest action. They are few in number, and are formed with the suffix -ess or -essī, the latter being used in the complete tenses and simple stem forms. Illustrations are: —

fac-ess-ere, *to do eagerly;*	from **fac-ere,** *to do.*
cap-ess-ere, *to take eagerly, to seize;*	" **cap-ere,** *to take.*

Desideratives denote the desire to do an action. They are few in number, and are formed with the suffix -tŭri (-sŭri). Illustrations are: —

cena-turīre, *to wish to dine;*	from **cena-re,** *to dine.*
emp-turīre, *to wish to buy;*	" **em-ere,** *to buy.*

Desideratives seem to be formed from the future active participle by the addition of **i,** as stated in 246, the **u** being shortened, probably by the change of accent.

Formation of Adverbs.

Many adverbs are case-forms of nouns and adjectives, often with obsolete endings.   The locative, accusative and ablative are most frequent. | **248**

Adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives and verbs; adverbs of source from nouns; numeral adverbs from numeral adjectives. | **249**

Formation of Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

The interjections proper are primitive sounds, but various nouns are used interjectionally in the nominative, accusative or vocative.   So also are curt phrases. | **250**

The prepositions and conjunctions are in some cases case-forms or phrases, but most of them are not easily subjected to grammatical analysis, and may conveniently be regarded as primitive words. | **251**

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[249] The most usual suffixes for adverbs of manner from adjectives are -ē and -tĕr; from verbs, -tim (-sim). Adverbs of source are formed from nouns with the suffix -tŭs.   Illustrations are : —

cert-e, *surely ;*		from **certus,** *sure.*
firmĭ-ter, *firmly ;*	"	**firmus,** *firm.*
cau-tim, *cautiously ;*	"	**cav-ēre,** *to be cautious.*
fundĭ-tus, *from the bottom ;*	"	**fundus,** *bottom.*

Adverbs of source are formed from adjectives also, and even from prepositions.   For the numeral adverbs (ending -iens or -iēs) see [118].

[251] The manner of formation of prepositions and conjunctions is a subject for comparative grammar, and cannot be fully treated in an elementary book.

Composition.

252   Words are also formed by composition, *i.e.*, by combining two or more stems into one. The suffixes of inflection or derivation are then added to the last stem.

[252] The first stem usually modifies the second with the force of an adverb, an adjective, an oblique case, or a direct object; *e.g.*, —

> **in-īqvus,** *unfair* (**in, aequus**).
> **centi-manus,** *hundred-handed* (**centum, manus**).
> **capri-cornus,** *goat-horned* (**caper, cornu**).
> **partĭ-ceps,** *partaker* (**pars, capere**).
> **sangui-sūga,** *bloodsucker, leech* (**sanguis, sugo**).
>   etc.   etc.

A few words are often written as compounds, though not really such; *e.g.*, **res publica,** *commonwealth;* **jus jurandum,** *oath;* **legis lator,** *legislator.* etc. The custom of writing them as single words has caused them to be looked on as compounds, and they are sometimes called "spurious compounds." Compare in English *instead* (i.e. *in stead*), *perchance, perhaps,* etc., where two words have grown into one.

PART IV. — SYNTAX.

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Person, Number, Voice, Concord.

The modifications of person, number and voice **253** have the same force in Latin as in English. Special rules are needed only for concord, for the use of the cases, tenses and moods, and for the non-finite verb-forms.

The rules of concord are : —

(*a*) The appositive or predicate noun agrees in **254** *case* with the noun it limits.

(*b*) The adjective agrees in *gender*, *number* and **255** *case* with the noun it limits.

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[253] Except the reflexive use of the passive and the deponent verbs. See 154.

[254] The appositive and predicate noun are usually required by the sense to agree in number, and they agree in gender also, when possible.

Most nouns lack a separate form for the locative and vocative. Such nouns, when used as appositives to those cases, are put in other constructions to express the same idea; with the locative, in the ablative (or ablative with a preposition); with the vocative, in the nominative.

[255] An adjective may limit two or more nouns. In this case the predicate adjective is generally plural and masculine if the nouns denote persons; neuter, if they denote things. The attributive adjective, limiting two or more nouns, generally agrees with the nearest.

Two or more ordinal numerals may stand in the singular with a plural noun; *e.g.*, **prima et qvarta legiones,** *the first and fourth legions.*

256   (*c*) Pronouns agree with their antecedents in *gen-der*, *number* and *person*.

257   (*d*) The finite verb agrees with its subject in *number* and *person*.

The participles used to make the " periphrastic " verb-forms sometimes agree with an appositive or predicate noun rather than the subject, when it denotes the same thing.

The locative case is limited by no adjectives but possessives (except **die** in old Latin). A nominative used in direct address is in a few cases limited by an adjective in the vocative form. Nominatives so used are usually called vocatives. See [261].

A predicate noun or adjective after an infinitive without an expressed subject often agrees not with the omitted subject but with the same word expressed in the sentence in some other case; *e.g.*, **cupio esse bonus,** *I wish to be good;* **mihi licet esse bono,** *I am permitted to be good.* (In the former of these sentences **bonus** agrees with **ego,** expressed in the ending of the verb **cupio;** in the latter, **bono** agrees with **mihi.**) **Vobis necesse est fortibus viris esse,** *you must be brave men.*

[256] The rule applies, of course, only to substantive pronouns, and even these can show person only when they are used as subjects of finite verbs, which show by their ending the person of the subject. All adjective pronouns agree as adjectives. A few cases occur in poetry of an agreement of the relative pronoun in *case* also (attraction); and in a few instances the antecedent takes the case of the relative. A pronoun sometimes agrees with an appositive or predicate-noun of its antecedent. With more than one antecedent, pronouns follow the usage of adjectives in gender and number; that of verbs in person. See [255] and [257].

[257] With two or more subjects taken conjointly, the verb is plural. If the subjects differ in person the verb takes the first person in prefer-ence to the second, the second in preference to the third. But in such cases the verb often agrees with the nearest subject, especially if it precedes the subjects.

Occasional violations of the rules of agreement are found, the most common being an agreement according to sense rather than form. Thus, a feminine or neuter collective noun may take a plural adjective or verb referring to the implied individuals; two subjects, taken together, may take a singular verb if they express a single idea, etc.

Use of the Cases.

The NOMINATIVE is used —

    (*a*) As subject of a finite verb.   **258**

    (*b*) In exclamations.   **259**

    (*c*) To denote the person or thing spoken to.   **260**

The VOCATIVE is used —

    (*a*) To denote the person or thing spoken to.   **261**

The ACCUSATIVE is used —

    (*a*) As the direct object of an action.   **262**

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[258] The use of the *subject-nominative* is the same as in English.

[259] The *exclamatory nominative* may be considered the subject of a verb implied in the connection. It is usually accompanied by the interjection **en** or **ecce**. **en Priamus!** *Lo, (here is) Priam!* **En ego, vester Ascanius!** *Lo, (it is) I, your Ascanius!* **ecce tuae litterae!** *Now your letter (comes)!*

[260] The *nominative of direct address* is the regular usage in the plural number, where no vocative is found, but is rare in the singular, when a separate vocative form exists. It is usual to call nominatives vocatives when used in this way, if no separate vocative form is found. **audi tu, populus Albanus,** *hear, thou Alban nation.* **proice tela, sangvis meus,** *cast away thy weapons, my son.*

[261] **faciam, Laeli,** *I will do so, Lælius.* The vocative is the simple stem without a case-suffix. A vocative form is found in the singular in a-stems, masculine o-stems and semivowel-stems. In others the nominative is used as a vocative, and is usually called a vocative when so used. An adjective limiting such a nominative usually takes the vocative form, if it has a separate form for that case, but sometimes the nominative; *e.g.*, **sangvis meus,** above [260].

A form **macte** is called a vocative by some grammarians, an adverb by others. It is used as a simple exclamation, or with the imperative forms **esto, este,** as an exclamation of approval. **macte!** *good!* **macte virtute esto!** *bravo!*

[262] **omnem eqvitatum mittit,** *he sends all the cavalry.*

A special kind of direct object is the *cognate* accusative, which repeats the meaning of the verb in the form of a noun; *e.g.*, **vitam tutam vivere,**

263	(*b*) As subject of an infinitive.
264	(*c*) In exclamations.

to live a safe life ; **servitutem servire,** *to slave slavery* (i.e., *undergo*). This form of direct object follows verbs which are otherwise intransitive.

Many verbs are transitive in Latin, while English verbs of like meaning are intransitive. In such cases a preposition is inserted in English ; *e.g.,* **arma cano,** *I sing of arms ;* **petit hostem,** *he aims at the foe,* etc. Other verbs, properly intransitive, sometimes take a direct object in poetical or figurative language ; *e.g.,* **ardebat Alexin,** *he was hot for* (i.e., *loved*) *Alexis ;* **redolere antiqvitatem,** *to smell of antiquity ;* **saltare Cyclopa,** *to dance the Cyclops ;* **resonant Amaryllida silvae,** *the groves echo* (*the name of*) *Amaryllis.* Many verbs also are made transitive by being compounded with prepositions.

In a few cases the action implied in a noun or adjective governs a direct object. The infinitives, participles and gerund, of course, retaining their verbal power, govern the same case as their verbs.

Factitive verbs (*i.e.,* verbs meaning *make, appoint, choose, name,* etc.) take two objects, as in English, denoting the same person or thing ; *e.g.,* **populus Romanus Ciceronem creavit consulem,** *the Roman nation chose Cicero consul.*

Doceo (and compounds), **celo** and a few verbs of *demanding* and *questioning,* sometimes take two direct objects, — one denoting the person, the other the thing ; *e.g.,* **non te celavi sermonem,** *I have not concealed from you the remark ;* **te hoc rogo,** *I ask you this ;* **Caesar Haeduos frumentum flagitare,** *Cæsar kept demanding corn from the Hœduans.* In the passive voice of these verbs the accusative of the person becomes the subject, and that of the thing remains. In many cases the accusative of the thing seems to be an accusative of specification, or to approach that meaning, and may be a development from it. See [267].

[263] This use is a development of (*a*), the subject of the infinitive being originally the object of the leading verb. It has been extended, however, to all uses of the infinitive except the historical infinitive, which is a finite verb-form in meaning. See [342]. **cum suos interfici viderent,** *when they saw that their men were being killed ;* **necesse est legem haberi,** *it is needful that the law be kept ;* **fama erat hostem advenire,** *there was a rumor that the foe was coming.*

[264] The *exclamatory accusative* is possibly the object of a verb implied in the connection, but in most cases none need be supplied in translation. An interjection often accompanies it. **heu, me miserum!**

(*d*) To denote the place to which motion proceeds.	**265**
(*e*) To denote extent of time or space.	**266**
(*f*) With verbs or adjectives to define their appli-	**267**
cation.	
(*g*) With many prepositions.	**268**

Alas, unhappy me! **hanc audaciam,** *the impudence!* In old Latin the accusatives **eum, eam, illum, illam,** etc., are combined with the preceding **en** or **ecce** to **eccum, eccam, eccillam,** etc.

[265] *Accusative of limit.* This use is limited, in prose, to names of towns and small islands, and **domum, domos, foras, rus. Hennam profecti sunt,** *they went to Henna;* **ego rus ibo,** *I shall go to the country.* Other words require a preposition, except a few phrases with **eo,** " to go," or **do,** " to give," in which the freer use of early Latin is retained; *e.g.,* **pessum ire,** *to go to ruin;* **pessum dare,** [*to send to ruin,* i.e.] *to ruin;* **infitias ire, exseqvias ire, venum ire, venum dare.** Here belongs also the use of the accusative case of the supine. See 351.

[266] *Accusative of extent.* **paucos dies moratus,** *having waited a few days;* **millia passuum tria ab eorum castris castra ponit,** *he pitches a camp three miles from their camp.* Extent of time or space is sometimes expressed by the ablative. See 302.

[267] *Accusative of specification.* This use is rare in prose, the ablative being the usual construction. The accusative is found, however, in neuter pronouns, **id, qvid,** etc., in **nihil;** in neuter adjectives, **pauca, multum,** etc.; and in a few idiomatic phrases. It is usually best translated by an adverb or an adverbial phrase; *e.g.,* **quid?** *why?* **maximam partem,** *chiefly;* **id temporis,** *then;* **istuc aetatis,** *at your age,* etc. In the phrases **id genus,** *of that sort;* **virile secus,** *of the male sex,* and the like, this accusative seems to qualify a noun, and is nearly equal in force to a genitive or ablative of description. Under this head come many so-called adverbs, **multum, plus, minus,** etc.

With **cingor,** *I bind on* (*myself*), and other passive forms used reflexively, an accusative is found, which is usually referred to this head. It is better treated, however, as direct object, since the verb is not properly passive. In poetical language many passive participles retain a direct object which may be explained in the same way.

[268] The accusative and ablative cases follow prepositions in Latin. A list of those that take the ablative is given in 308; all others take the accusative. Prepositions compounded with verbs sometimes retain their power of

269 | The DATIVE is used —

(*a*) As indirect object of an action or feeling.

governing an accusative. If the verb is transitive, it will then take two accusatives, — one a direct object, the other governed by the preposition. This use is rare, except with **trans. populos adit,** *he goes to* (i.e., *visits*) *the tribes;* **milites flumen transportabat,** *he was taking his troops over the river.*

Pridie, *the day before;* **postridie,** *the day after;* and the phrase **ante diem,** used in dates, are followed by an accusative, like prepositions. The construction seems to be elliptical.

The adjectives **propior, proximus,** and the corresponding adverbs **propius, proxime,** are followed by an accusative like their positive **prope,** which is both adverb and preposition. (Compare the similar prepositional use of *nearer, nearest,* in English.)

[269] The *dative of indirect object* denotes the person or thing *to* or *for* which, or *for whose advantage* anything is done or exists. Various prepositions are used to express the idea in English, *to* and *for* most often. Sometimes the English indirect objective will render it. **Himilconi respondit,** *he answered Himilco;* **mihi licet adire,** *I am allowed to come near* (*it is allowed to me*)**;** **hostibus terrorem augere,** *to increase the fright of the enemy* (*increase fright for*)**;** **pugnare hostibus,** *to fight with* (or *against*) *the foe.*

Sometimes, in poetry, the dative of the indirect object is found with verbs of motion, where a phrase expressing the *place to which* would be used in prose; *e.g.,* **it clamor caelo,** *the outcry goes to the sky.* This use arises from a poetical notion or conception, the rising of the shout being thought of not simply as going to the sky, but as affecting or having influence on the sky. So occasionally other verbs, the action being conceived of as done *to* the person or thing, though another construction would be used in prose; *e.g.,* **lateri abdidit ensem,** *buried the sword in his side.* So especially verbs meaning "*take away.*"

Many verbs are intransitive in Latin, though verbs of like meaning are transitive in English, and the indirect object with such becomes a direct object in translation. The most common are verbs meaning *help, please, trust, serve,* and the contrary; also *spare, pardon, envy, command, persuade,* and the like. If pains is taken to translate them by intransitive expressions, the dative will be seen to have its proper force. **non Herculi nocere voluit,** *she did not wish to do harm to Hercules* (= *injure*). **mundus deo paret,** *the world is subject to* (*obeys*) *a god.* Transitive verbs with the meanings given above govern an accusative, but may take a dative also, if

(*b*) To denote the possessor or apparent agent.	**270**
(*c*) With adjectives, to denote that to which the quality or feeling is directed.	**271**
(*d*) To denote purpose or end.	**272**

the meaning permits; and most of these verbs may take an accusative of the thing, especially a neuter pronoun, along with the dative of the person. **Hoc tibi impero,** *I give you this command* (*command this to you*). In the case of some of these verbs, usage is unsettled, and they take either a direct or an indirect object, with little or no difference of meaning.

The same remarks apply also to many verbs compounded with the prepositions **ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super,** which take a dative, and if transitive an accusative also.

[270] The *dative of possessor* is simply an indirect object, denoting the person for whom, or for whose advantage or disadvantage something exists. It needs mention only on account of peculiarity of translation. **Gallis haec consuetudo est,** *the Gauls have this custom* (lit., *this custom exists for the Gauls*). The same is true of the *dative of apparent agent,* so named because translated "*by.*" It is found regularly with the present passive participle (rarely with the perfect passive participle or a verbal adjective in -**bilis**), and denotes the person who has the work to do. **multa mihi facienda sunt,** *much must be done by me, I have much to do* (lit., *the doing-of-much exists for me*). In poetry we sometimes find a dative of the real agent, or one which approaches that meaning.

[271] The *dative with adjectives* is also an indirect object, and denotes that toward which the implied feeling is exercised, or for which the implied quality exists. The adjectives most often limited by a dative are those kindred in meaning to the verbs that govern a dative, and those which mean *like, ready, friendly, easy, fit,* etc. **paucis carior fides quam pecunia fuit,** *to a few, truth was dearer than money;* **hoc luctuosum est parentibus,** *this is sad for parents.* **idem,** *same,* sometimes takes a dative (like adjectives of *likeness*).

In a few cases, a noun or adverb, derived from a verb or adjective which governs a dative, takes an indirect object like its primitive. **convenienter naturae,** *in agreement with nature.* Also, rarely, a dative is found with interjections. **vae victis!** *woe to the vanquished!* **vae mihi!** *ah me!*

[272] The *dative of purpose* is most frequent with the verb "*be.*" It is translated as a predicate-noun or an appositive with "*as,*" less often by "*for.*" **impedimento id fuit,** *this was a hindrance* (*served as a hindrance*);

273	The LOCATIVE is used — (a) To denote the place of an action.
274	(b) To denote price or value.

virtus non datur dono, *virtue is not given as a present;* **eqvitatum Caesari auxilio miserant,** *they had sent cavalry as a help to Cæsar.* A second dative of the person to whom the action is of interest is often added, as in the last example. This use of the dative to express purpose is not common, except in the case of a few words. A few have become equivalent to adjectives, — **frugi bonae** = *honest,* **usui** = *useful,* **cordi** = *pleasing,* etc. In **operae est,** *it is worth while,* it is not clear whether **operae** is dative or genitive. **operae pretium est** also occurs, and the shorter expression may be derived from the latter.

On the border between the dative of indirect object and the dative of purpose stands its occurrence to denote the *use* to which a thing is put; *e.g.,* **domicilio locum delegerunt,** *they chose a place for a home;* **receptui signum,** *the "retreat-call," signal for retreat;* **esui olivae,** *eating-olives,* etc. This use of the dative is most common with the gerundive, in giving the duties of an officer or committee, and similar expressions; *e.g.,* **decemviri legibus scribendis,** *a committee of ten to compile the laws.* In such cases it seems to limit a noun, but the construction is probably elliptical.

[273] A separate form for the locative is found in Latin only in the singular of some names of towns and islands, and a few other words, **domi, humi, ruri** being the most frequent. (In other words, and in the plural, the ablative or a preposition is used to express "place where.") **cogitandum tibi erat Romaene et domi tuae, an Mitylenis aut Rhodi malles vivere,** *you had to consider whether you preferred to live at Rome and at your own home, or at Mitylenæ or Rhodes.* A locative **animi** occurs with verbs and adjectives of *feeling* ; e.g., **aeger animi,** *sick at heart.*

In old Latin a locative **die** is found denoting the "time when"; *e.g.,* **qvinti die,** *on the fifth day;* **die crastini,** *to-morrow,* etc.

Several adverbs of place or time are locatives; *e.g.,* **hīc,** *here;* **illic,** *there;* **postridie** (= **posteri die**), *on the following day;* **pridie,** *on the day before;* **qvotidie,** *daily,* etc.

In the case of plural names of towns, it is a matter of indifference whether the case used to denote place be called ablative or locative. The form is the same, and the use of the singular shows that either case may be used in this sense.

[274] A definite amount named as the price is expressed by the ablative. The locative is found in indefinite expressions of price or value; *e.g.,*

The genitive was originally the case of the *source* or (consequently) the *cause*. This idea can be seen in some of its uses; in others the idea of possession, developed from that of source, is more prominent.	**275**

The GENITIVE is used (as the case of *source* or *cause*) —

(*a*) To denote the crime	**276**
1. With verbs of *judicial action*.	**277**
2. With adjectives of *guilt* or *innocence*.	**278**
(*b*) To denote the person or thing that excites the feeling	**279**
1. With some verbs of *reminding, remembering, forgetting, pitying*.	**280**
2. With **miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet**.	**281**
3. With *adjectives* of like meaning.	**282**

magni aestimare, *to value highly;* **flocci non faciunt,** *they don't care a straw for* —— *;* **est mihi tanti,** *it is worth my while;* **aeqvi boni facere,** *to take in good part,* etc. In **homo nihili,** *a worthless fellow,* and the like, the locative seems to limit a noun, but the expression is perhaps elliptical.

The locative was not clear to the Romans themselves, and its similarity of form caused it to be confused, in the singular, with the genitive, and in a few cases genuine genitives were used with the force of locatives. Thus, **pluris** and **minoris** occur a few times to express value; a few other genitives occur once each. **mentis,** *in mind,* is found twice; it seems to have been formed after the analogy of **animi.**

[277] *i.e.,* verbs of *accusing, condemning, acquitting,* etc. **ambitus accusare,** *to accuse of bribery.*

[278] **insons culpae,** *innocent of fault;* **reus avaritiae,** *charged with avarice.*

[280] **admonebat eum egestatis,** *he reminded him of his poverty;* **veteris proverbii memini,** *I remember an old saw.*

[281] **eum libidinis infamiaeqve neqve pudet neqve taedet,** *he is neither ashamed of his licentiousness and ill-repute nor sick of them.* With **pudet** the person toward whom the sense of shame is felt is occasionally treated as the exciting object.

One or two other verbs of like meaning occasionally occur with a genitive, — **vereor,** *to feel awe;* **fastidio,** *to feel disgust.*

[282] **gloriae memor,** *mindful of glory;* **lassus militiae,** *sick of warfare.*

283	(*c*) To denote the whole, of which the word it limits denotes a part.
284	(*d*) To describe anything by denoting its qualities or its material.

[283] *Partitive genitive.* It may limit nouns, adjectives or adverbs, if they express a part. **pars militum,** *part of the soldiers;* **ubinam genitum sumus?** *where in the world are we?* (*in what place among nations?*) **omnium fluminum maximum,** *the largest of all rivers;* **genus eorum unum,** *one class of them.* Here belongs the genitive in various idiomatic phrases; *e.g.,* **id temporis,** *at that* [*point of*] *time;* **qvid novi?** *what news?* **id loci,** *that spot,* etc. As partitive genitives the personal pronoun forms **nostrum, vestrum** are used, not **nostri, vestri. ejus** is a partitive genitive in the phrase **qvod ejus,** = "*as far as*" (lit. *whatever of it*). **qvod ejus possis,** *as far as you can.* In older Latin, and in colloquial style, we find phrases like **scelus viri,** *a villain;* **qvid hominis?** *what sort of a fellow?* **monstrum hominis,** *a monster,* etc., which come under the head of partitives, as do also the phrases **compendi facere,** *to save;* **lucri facere,** *to gain,* and the like.

[284] *Descriptive genitive.* **res magni laboris,** *a task of great toil* (*very toilsome*); **murus pedum sedecim,** *a sixteen foot wall.* This genitive, when denoting a quality of the word it limits, regularly has an adjective with it, as in the examples given. (**bidui, tridui,** etc., have an adjective compounded with them.)

The descriptive genitive, when used to denote material, does not require a limiting adjective. This use is rare (an adjective is generally used to denote material), and in many cases seems to approach the idea of a partitive genitive. Examples are: **acervus frumenti,** *a heap of grain;* **talentum auri,** *a talent of gold.*

Other constructions occur instead of the genitive in all its uses to express source or cause. Thus, verbs of *accusing,* etc., verbs of *reminding,* etc., sometimes take a phrase with a preposition; verbs of *remembering,* etc., a direct object; **miseret,** etc., an infinitive; the various adjectives, also, are used with prepositional phrases instead of the genitive. The poets and later writers use the genitive more freely with adjectives to express cause; sometimes also to express specification, where an ablative or locative might be expected.

For a partitive genitive a phrase with a preposition is not unusual, oftenest with **de** or **ex.**

The GENITIVE is used (as a possessive case) —

(*a*) To denote the possessor.		**285**
(*b*) To define a noun more closely.		**286**
(*c*) To denote the subject of the implied action or feeling.		**287**
(*d*) To denote the object of the implied action or feeling.		**288**

The idea of *source* passes into that of *separation*, and in a few cases a genitive is found in poetry, where an ablative of separation would be the usual construction. Probably the habit of imitating Greek constructions (common in the Augustan poets) is the cause of this use.

[285] *Possessive genitive.* **membra hominis,** *a man's limbs;* **natura deorum,** *the nature of the gods.* Used with any noun denoting a thing capable of possession in the widest sense; also with adjectives used substantively; *e.g.,* **aeqvalis ejus,** *his equal in age;* **similis Caesaris,** *like Cæsar (Cæsar's like),* etc. This genitive is often put in the predicate, and *mark, duty,* or some such word supplied in translation; *e.g.,* **est hominis,** *'tis a man's duty;* **hominis est errare,** *it is characteristic of man to make mistakes.*

The genitive case of the personal pronouns is not used, in prose, as a possessive. The possessive pronouns are used instead.

A possessive genitive is found with **ergo, instar, tenus, pridie** and **postridie,** which were originally nouns, but have sunk to prepositions or adverbs.

[286] *Appositive genitive.* **urbs Romae,** (*Rome's city,* i.e.) *Rome;* **urbs Buthroti,** *the city of Buthrotum.* This is properly a possessive genitive. It is rarely found, an appositive being far more usual.

[287] *Subjective genitive.* **deorum factum,** *a deed of the gods.* The word it limits must imply, of course, an action or feeling. In some cases it is hard to draw the line between the subjective and the possessive use of the genitive, and the possessive pronouns are used for it as for a possessive genitive.

[288] *Objective genitive.* **usus membrorum,** *the use of the limbs;* **cura rerum alienarum,** *the care of others' interests.* The objective genitive limits nouns and adjectives that imply an action or feeling which may pass over to an object. **amans sui,** *fond of himself;* **capax urbis mag-**

	The genitive is used, further —
289	(*a*) To denote price or penalty.
290	(*b*) With a few verbs and adjectives of plenty and want.
291	(*c*) With **interest** and **rēfert.**

nae, *capable-of-holding a large city*. As objective genitives, **mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri** are used (**nostrum, vestrum** very rarely).

A phrase with a preposition (**in, erga,** etc.) may be used instead of the objective genitive. This use of the genitive, like that of the subjective genitive, is a development of the idea of possession, the action or feeling, whether done to one or by one, being thought of as something belonging to him.

[289] The genitive of price has been mentioned [274]. The genitive of penalty is found in **capitis damnare,** *to condemn to death*, and similar expressions. It seems to have arisen from confusion with the genitive of the crime, but possibly there may be an ellipsis of the word on which the genitive depends, the expression having been originally a legal phrase. Penalty is usually expressed by the ablative.

[290] With verbs and adjectives of *filling, fullness*, the genitive seems to come under the head of *source* or *cause;* but an ablative of means is more common. With other expressions the genitive is not common, except in the poets and later writers, who seem, in many cases, to use it in imitation of the Greek, to express not only *want* or *lack*, but often also *separation* or *specification*, ideas which are regularly expressed by the ablative. The verb **potior,** also, which usually takes an ablative, is found with a genitive. **domus erat plena ebriorum,** *the house was full of drunken men;* **temeritatis implere,** *to fill with rashness;* **exercitationis indiget,** *needs practice.*

[291] **nullius interest,** *it makes no difference to any one;* **illorum refert,** *it concerns them.* In this construction, the possessive pronoun forms **meā, tuā, suā, nostrā, vestrā** are used, instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun. The origin of this genitive is not clear, but **rēfert** is commonly thought to stand for **rem fert;** in which case the genitive is possessive, and **meā, tuā,** etc., stand for **meam, tuam,** etc. The genitive and possessive pronoun with **interest** may be explained as having arisen from the analogy of **rēfert,** which has the same meaning, and naturally takes the same construction.

The ablative in Latin has taken on itself the func- **292**
tions of four different cases, the meaning and force
of which are rudely given by the four prepositions
most often used to translate it, —*from, by, in, with.*

1. FROM — The Ablative Proper.

The ABLATIVE PROPER is used —

(*a*) To denote the place from which motion **293**
     proceeds.
(*b*) To denote separation, source and origin. **294**

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[292] The classification here given of the uses of the ablative is not meant to be absolute or scientific. The various uses shade into one another, and a sharp line of division is, in many cases, impossible. In doubtful cases, the clue offered by other constructions has been generally followed; thus *cause,* though often passing insensibly into *means,* has been put under "ablative proper" rather than "instrumental," because of the frequent use of **a, de** or **ex** to express cause; *price,* though in many cases "instrumental," has been put under "locative" because of the locative of price, etc. But analogy fails in many cases, — the name of a town used in dating letters is found not only in the ablative, but also in the locative and in the ablative with **a.** Should the ablative when so used be regarded as "place where" or "place from which"? Some of these doubtful cases are mentioned in the notes; if the teacher should choose to transfer any usage from one head to another, no harm will come of it, as the sole object of the classification is to render it easier to learn and keep in mind the various uses.

[293] This use is generally limited in prose to names of towns and small islands, and **domo, humo, rure.** (Other words usually take a preposition.) **Corintho fugit,** *fled from Corinth;* **rure huc advenit,** *came hither from the country.*

[294] **hostem rapinis prohibere,** *to keep the foe from plunder;* **Jove natus et Latonā,** *born of Jove and Latona;* **satus terrā,** *sprung from earth.* (A preposition is often used, however, to express separation or source.)

Under this head belongs the use of the ablative with verbs and adjectives denoting *want* and *lack;* *e.g.,* **vacuus curā,** *free from care;* **isto nomine caruit,** *it lacked that name.* (The genitive is also thus used; see 290.)

| 295 | (c) To denote cause. |
| 296 | (d) To denote the standard of comparison. |

2. BY — The Instrumental Ablative.

The INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE is used —

| 297 | (a) To denote the means or instrument. |

[295] The *ablative of cause* is used with a great variety of expressions, and rendered into English by various prepositions. **animi vitio id evenit,** *that came about from a fault of character.* So with **gaudere,** *to rejoice* (*in*); **niti,** *to depend* (*on*); **confidere,** *to trust* (*to*); **contentus,** *satisfied* (*with*); **laetus,** *glad* (*of*); etc.

[296] This ablative is translated "than." **nihil est viro dignius aeqvitate,** *nothing is more worthy of a man than justice.* "Than" is also expressed by **qvam,** and the usage of Latin speech is roughly the following: —

(a) When the standard of comparison is a relative pronoun, the ablative is used.

(b) When the standard of comparison is subject, or an attribute of the subject, either the ablative or **qvam** may be used.

(c) When two adjectives are compared, **qvam** is used, and both adjectives take the same degree. **magis disertus qvam sapiens,** *more learned than wise;* **verior qvam gratior,** *more true than popular.*

(d) With adverbs the ablative is often used loosely in indefinite comparisons; *e.g.,* **dicto citius,** *sooner than said.* So **spe, opinione, justo,** etc.

(e) In expressions of *size, number, weight,* etc., after the adverbs **plus, minus, amplius, longius,** either the ablative or **qvam** may be used. But **qvam** is often omitted in such constructions, and the word denoting the standard of comparison left in the same case as if **qvam** were expressed; *e.g.,* **plus tria millia,** *more than three thousand.*

(f) In cases not included in the above **qvam** is used in prose, but the ablative is more freely used in poetry. So too with **alius,** *other* (*than*).

On the border between the ablative proper and the instrumental ablative stands its use to denote the material of which a thing consists; *e.g.,* **animo constamus et corpore,** *we are made up of soul and body.*

Here, too, may be placed the use of the ablative with **facio, fio** and **sum** in the peculiar idioms, **qvid facias . . . ?** *what can you do with . . . ?* and **qvid fiet . . . ?** *what will become of . . . ? e.g.,* **qvid hoc homine faciatis ?** *what could you do with this fellow ?*

[297] *Ablative of means.* **lacte et carne vivunt pellibusqve sunt**

| (*b*) To denote the amount of difference. | **298** |

3. IN — The Locative Ablative.

The LOCATIVE ABLATIVE is used —

| (*a*) To denote the place where an action takes place. | **299** |

vestiti, *they live on milk and flesh and are clothed with skins;* **eum coronā donasti,** *you presented him with a crown.*

fruor, fungor, potior, utor, vescor are limited by an ablative of means, which is usually translated as a direct object. **lacte, caseo, carne vescor,** *I eat milk, cheese, flesh* (i.e., *feed myself with*); **Crassus aedilitate functus est,** *Crassus held (busied himself with) the œdileship.* In regard to the reflexive use of these deponents, see 154. (In old Latin they sometimes take a direct object, and a remnant of their transitive meaning is seen in their present passive participles, which are used with **esse** to make the "second periphrastic conjugation," like those of other transitive verbs. **potior** also takes a genitive; see [290].)

The ablative of means is used also with **opus** and **usus;** *e.g.,* **opus est pecuniā,** *(there is a work [to be done] with money, i.e.) there is need of money.* In this construction, instead of a noun denoting action we sometimes find the perfect passive participle, or the ablative of the supine; *e.g.,* **opus est properato,** *there is need of haste;* **opus est factu,** *there is need of action.*

The ablative may denote the road or route by which one goes. **Aureliā viā profectus est,** *he went by the Aurelian way;* **flumine adverso,** *up the river;* **recto litore,** *straight along the shore;* etc. This use may be considered either instrumental or locative, as the road is looked on as a *means* of travel or a *place* of travel.

[298] *Ablative of degree.* **paulo longius processit,** *he went on a little farther;* **decem annis ante Punicum bellum,** *ten years before the Punic war.* So with **abesse, distare,** etc., to express distance; *e.g.,* **qvinqve milibus ab urbe distat,** *is five miles from the city;* **a litore tridui navigatione,** *three days' sail from the coast.*

qvo . . . eo and **qvanto . . . tanto** occur often in correlative clauses, and are translated by *the . . . the.* **qvo difficilius, eo praeclarius,** *the more difficult, the more glorious.*

[299] *Ablative of place.* This use is generally limited in prose to names of towns and islands, words which mean "place" (**loco, locis, parte,** etc.), words limited by **totus** or **medius,** and a few phrases. (Other words usually take a preposition. For the locative of "place where" see 273.) **Tamesis uno omnino loco transiri potest,** *the Thames can be crossed in*

300	(b) To define the application of the word it limits.
301	(c) To denote the time when or within which an action takes place.
302	(d) To denote extent of time or space.
303	(e) To denote price or penalty.

4. WITH — The Comitative Ablative.

The COMITATIVE ABLATIVE is used —

304	(a) To denote accompaniment.

one place only; **totis trepidatur castris,** *there is a panic in the whole camp.* So **Carthagine Novā,** *at New Carthage;* **Trallibus,** *at Tralles;* **terrā mariqve,** *by land and sea;* **dextrā,** *on the right,* etc. In the case of plural names of towns, it is indifferent whether the case be called ablative or locative.

[300] *Ablative of specification.* Translated *in, in respect to, in point of,* etc. **temporibus errasti,** *you were mistaken in the date;* **grandis natu,** *advanced in life;* **rex nomine, non potentiā,** *king in name, not in power.* Here belongs the ordinary use of the supine in the ablative; *e.g.,* **mirabile dictu,** *strange to tell;* possibly also the ablative with **dignus** and **indignus;** *e.g.,* **indignus est vitā,** *he is unworthy of life.* But see [303].

[301] *Ablative of time.* **tertiā vigiliā solvit,** *he set sail in the third watch;* **solis occasu,** *at sunset;* **decem diebus proximis,** *within the next ten days.* Some expressions of time contain at the same time a suggestion also of cause, means or specification; *e.g.,* **bello civili periit,** *he lost his life in the civil war;* **duobus his proeliis,** *in these two battles,* etc.

[302] *Ablative of extent.* **pugnatum est horis qvinqve,** *the fight lasted five hours.* An accusative is more often used to express extent of time or space. See 266.

[303] *Ablative of price.* **vendidit hic auro patriam,** *this man sold his country for gold.* *Ablative of penalty.* **tertia parte agri damnati,** *fined a third part of their land;* **morte damnatus,** *condemned to death.* With verbs of *exchanging* either what is given or what is received may be treated as the price. With some verbs the ablative of price seems to be instrumental rather than locative. Price is also expressed by the locative, and penalty by the genitive. See 274 and 289.

An ablative is used with the adjectives **dignus** and **indignus,** and with the verb **dignor,** which seems to come under the head of price, but is not quite clear. See [300]. **haud me tali dignor honore,** *I do not think myself worthy of such honor.*

(*b*) To describe anything by expressing its qualities or appearance.	**305**
(*c*) To denote manner or attendant circumstances.	**306**
The ablative is used, further —	
(*a*) As the case absolute.	**307**

[304] *Ablative of accompaniment.* This use is limited in prose to military expressions, giving the troops or forces with which a movement is made. **Caesar subseqvebatur omnibus copiis,** *Cæsar followed with all his troops.* In other expressions the preposition **cum** is used.

[305] *Ablative of description.* In this use the ablative, like the descriptive genitive, requires a limiting adjective or a limiting genitive. **pari acclivitate collis,** *a hill of equal steepness;* **ore rubicundo homo,** *a red-faced fellow.* It is often best rendered by a compound adjective, as in the last example.

[306] The *ablative of manner* is generally limited in prose to words meaning "*manner*" (**modo, ratione,** etc.), and words which have a limiting adjective. **aeqvo animo mori,** *to die with resignation (an even mind);* **id summo studio a militibus administratur,** *this is performed by the soldiers with the greatest zeal.* Other words take regularly the preposition **cum,** except a few like **injuriā,** *unjustly,* **silentio,** *silently,* which have become equivalent to adverbs in their use; and those which contain also the idea of *cause* or *means;* *e.g.,* **nox cantu aut clamore acta,** *the night was spent in singing and shouting;* **pedibus proeliari,** *to fight on foot;* **versibus scribere,** *to write in verse,* etc.

The *ablative of attendant circumstances* lies between the ablative of manner and the ablative absolute (which often expresses manner or circumstance), and cannot be separated by any distinct line from those uses. **In foro summā hominum frequentiā exscribo,** *I am writing in the forum with a great crowd (around me).* So in various phrases: **injussu Caesaris,** *without Cæsar's orders;* **pace tuā,** *by your leave;* **tuo periculo,** *at your own risk,* etc. Here seems to belong two or three cases of the gerundive (see 349), which are often regarded as ablative absolute. **nullis officii praeceptis tradendis,** *without giving rules of duty;* **accusandis Camillus dis hominibusqve senescebat,** *Camillus grew old accusing gods and men.*

[307] The *ablative absolute* may be referred to either division of the case, according to the modification it expresses. It denotes most often *time, cause, means, manner, concession* or an *accompanying event,* and should

308 (*b*) With the prepositions **a (ab, abs), absqve, de, coram, palam, cum, ex (e), sine, tenus, pro** and **prae;** and sometimes with **in, sub, subter, super.**

be translated accordingly, usually by a modifying clause, but in the last case often by an independent clause, the proper connective (*and, but,* etc.) being supplied. **Germani, post tergum clamore audito, armis objectis, se ex castris ejecerunt,** *the Germans, when they heard the outcry in their rear, threw away their arms and burst out of the camp.* (Here **clamore audito** denotes time, and **armis objectis** an accompanying circumstance). **nostri omnes incolumes, perpaucis vulneratis,** *our men were all safe, though a few were wounded* (concession); **multis telis dejectis, defensores depellebant,** *they drove off the defenders by throwing many missiles* (means).

The ablative absolute consists regularly of a noun and a participle, the former being subject, the latter predicate of the implied statement. For predicate, however, a predicate-noun or adjective is often used, the lacking participle of the verb **sum** being supplied in translation. Rarely a clause or an infinitive is used as subject of the participle.

The ablative absolute is far more common than the English nominative absolute, to which it corresponds. Only seldom can the latter be used to translate it; the best rendering is usually by a modifying clause. The lack of a perfect active participle in Latin makes the construction far more frequent than it would otherwise be, and an English participial construction is often a good translation, if the voice of the Latin verb be changed; *e.g.,* **Caesar, obsidibus acceptis, exercitum in Bellovacos duxit,** *Cæsar, having received hostages, led his army,* etc.; **convocato consilio, eos incusavit,** *calling a council, he upbraided them.*

A few cases occur of the ablative absolute joined to the sentence it limits by a conjunction: **nisi munitis castris,** (*unless after the camp had been fortified*) *unless the camp had been* (*first*) *fortified;* **qvasi praedā sibi advectā,** *as if booty had been brought to him;* **tanqvam non transituris in Asiam Romanis,** *as if the Romans were not going to cross into Asia.*

In a few cases the participle stands alone as an ablative absolute, its subject being omitted. This corresponds to the impersonal use of a finite verb-form. **nihil festinato, nihil praeparato,** *without haste, and without preparation;* **diu certato,** *after a long fight* (lit. *it having been fought long*), like **diu certatum est,** (*it was fought long*) *there was a long fight.*

[308] The *ablative with prepositions* may be assigned to the divisions of the case as follows:—

Use of the Tenses.

The use of the tenses is, in general, the same as **309**
in English.

The perfect indicative, in its use, is either definite **310**
or indefinite.   The perfect definite corresponds to

Ablative proper: **a, absqve, de, ex, sine.**

Locative ablative: **coram, palam, tenus, pro, prae, in, sub, subter, super.**

Comitative ablative: **cum.**

In and **sub** take the ablative with expressions implying rest, the accusative with expressions implying motion.   **Subter** and **super** usually take the accusative; rarely the ablative, except **super** when it means "concerning."

A few words, commonly adverbs, are sometimes found with the ablative like prepositions; such are **procul, simul, clam.**

[309] The present indicative is often used, as in English, for a past tense (imperfect or perfect indefinite).   In this use it is called "historical present."   After the conjunction **dum,** "*while*," the present is often used in the same way, though a past tense is necessary in English.

With adverbs meaning "*long*" (**jam, diu,** etc.), the present and imperfect, though they have their proper force, are usually rendered into English by the perfect and pluperfect.   **jamdiu machinaris,** *you have long been plotting* (*and are plotting yet*); **diu comparabam,** *I had long been preparing* (*and was still doing so*).

The imperfect denotes a past action or state as continuing, repeated or customary, sometimes as attempted.   **dicebat,** "*he said*," "*he was saying*," "*he used to say*," or even "*he tried to say*."

The future indicative is sometimes used, as in English, to express a command.   Compare [315].   For the lacking future and future perfect subjunctive, the present and perfect subjunctive are commonly used; but when it is necessary to avoid ambiguity, the subjunctive of the first periphrastic conjugation may be used.

In letters, the imperfect and pluperfect tenses are sometimes found where the English would use the present and perfect; the time of the receipt of the letter, not the time of writing, being reckoned from.

Poets sometimes use the perfect indefinite, in imitation of Greek, to state a general truth.

[310] The perfect subjunctive is usually definite, except when it stands for an indefinite perfect indicative which has been changed to the subjunctive in a dependent statement, by 322.

the English "present perfect"; *e.g.*, **amavi,** *I have loved.* The perfect indefinite corresponds to the English "past"; *e.g.*, **amavi,** *I loved.*

311   The present, perfect definite, future and future perfect are primary tenses; the imperfect, perfect indefinite and pluperfect, secondary.

312   In most subordinate clauses the subjunctive takes a primary tense (present or perfect) when the verb on which it depends is primary, and a secondary tense (imperfect or pluperfect) when the verb on which it depends is secondary. This usage is called *sequence of tenses.*

Use of the Moods.

The INDICATIVE is used —

313   (*a*) To make a statement directly.
314   (*b*) To ask a question directly.

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[311] The English "perfect with have" is usually the equivalent of the definite perfect, but rarely our idiom requires "have" as a translation of the indefinite perfect.

The historical present is sometimes secondary, following meaning rather than form.

[312] The rule of sequence is not a principle of grammar, but simply the statement of a somewhat unsettled usage. It is subject to violation whenever the sense requires; but this rarely happens, except in consecutive clauses, and conditions impliedly false. See 326 and 327.

[313] The use of the indicative is the same as in English.

[314] Questions answered by "yes" or "no" are not marked, as in English, by the order of the words, but by the interrogative particles -**nĕ** and **num.** -**nĕ** is appended to the prominent word of the sentence (usually the first word), and simply shows that the sentence is a question. **sentisne?** *do you perceive?* Rarely -**nĕ** is omitted.

The insertion of a negative word shows, as in English, that the answer "yes" is expected. In such a case, -**nĕ** is appended to the negative word. **nonne sentis?** *do you not perceive?*

The IMPERATIVE is used —	
(*a*) To give a command directly.	**315**
The SUBJUNCTIVE is used (in independent sentences) —	
(*a*) To make a statement doubtfully.	**316**
(*b*) To ask a question doubtfully.	**317**

num shows that the answer "no" is expected. **num sentis?** *you don't perceive, do you?*

Double (or alternative) questions take **utrum, num** or **-nĕ** in the first clause, and **an** or **-nĕ** in the second.

Exclamatory sentences are questions in form, are introduced by the same interrogative words, and take the same construction.

[315] The use of the imperative is the same as in English, but a prohibition is seldom expressed by the simple imperative. Instead of it we find (*a*) **nē** with the perfect subjunctive, (*b*) **nolī** (plural **nolīte**) with an infinitive, (*c*) **cavē** (plural **cavēte**) with the present subjunctive. "*Do not speak*" would be **ne dixeris, noli dicere,** or **cave dicas**; seldom in prose, **ne dic.**

Rarely a future indicative is used in a command. **expectabis,** *you will wait.*

The imperative forms in **-to, -tote, -nto, -tor, -ntor** (often called future imperative), are old forms, usually found only in legal language (in laws, wills, etc.), and in poetry.

[316] *Potential* subjunctive. It corresponds to the English potential, and should be translated by *may, might, could, would, should,* etc., according to the sense of the passage. **velim,** *I should wish;* **vellem,** *I could wish;* **crederes,** *you would think;* **nemo istud concedat,** *no one would admit that.* Doubtful statements are most common with a conditional clause to limit them, and usually take the same form as the verb of the condition. Sometimes they are used where a conditional or concessive clause would have the same force.

The potential subjunctive may be used in dependent as well as independent sentences, where the indicative would make a positive statement, while the writer desires a doubtful one. This is especially the case in relative sentences, which, though dependent in form, are often practically equivalent to independent statements.

[317] There are two forms of questions in which the subjunctive is found. The first is simply the potential subjunctive of 316, when the statement is changed into a question; *e.g.,* **crederesne?** *would you think?* The

318	(*c*) To give a command doubtfully : —
319	1. In exhortations.
320	2. In wishes.
321	3. In requests or mild commands.

other use is the *dubitative* subjunctive. It is found in doubtful or rhetorical questions; *i.e.*, such as do not require an answer, but imply in themselves a negative answer. **qvid faciam?** *what can I do?* **qvid facerem?** *what was I to do?* **qvis dubitet?** *who doubts?* **qvis vellet?** *who could wish?* The implied answer in all these is "*nothing*," "*no one*." So **qviescerem et paterer?** *was I to keep quiet and suffer?* [*No*.] The subjunctive in such questions is really potential, but in English the indicative is often used, or the mood-verb *can*, while the subjunctive of 316 is more often rendered by *may, might* or *would*.

[319] *Hortatory* subjunctive. Used in the first person plural; *e.g.*, **moriamur!** *let us die!* **in arma ruamus!** *let us rush into the fight!*

[320] *Optative* subjunctive. **tibi di qvaecumqve precaris dent,** *may the gods give you all the blessings you pray for;* **moriar, ni puto,** *may I die, if I don't believe . . .!* A particle of wishing (**O, uti, utinam,** etc.) often accompanies this use of the subjunctive. (**O si** is used in the same way, but is a conditional clause.) The secondary tenses imply that the wish cannot be realized, and sometimes approach the notion of a past obligation. **utinam viveret,** *would that he were alive!* **ne poposcisses,** *you ought not to have asked* (lit., *would that you had not asked*).

[321] *Jussive* subjunctive. Common in the third person, where the imperative is seldom used, but rare in prose in the second person, except in prohibitions (see [315]), and when the subject is indefinite (you = any one). **relinqvas,** *leave* (= *one may leave*). **hoc amet, hoc spernat,** *let him choose this and reject that.*

This subjunctive, beside the uses given, often occurs where other constructions are common in Latin, viz :

With **modo** or **tantum,** "*only*" as the equivalent of a condition.
With **ut, ne, qvamvis,** etc., "*however much*," as the equivalent of a concessive clause.

E.g., **multa in eo admiranda sunt, eligere modo curae sit,** *there is much in him that is admirable, if one only takes pains in choosing* (lit., *only let it be your care to choose*); **velis tantummodo,** *if only you wish;* **qvamvis prudens sis, tamen . . .,** *though you be wise, yet . . .* (lit., *be as wise as you will*, **qvam vis**). At times, this subjunctive is so used without the adverbs mentioned; *e.g.*, **roges,** *you may ask* (i.e., *if you ask*, or *though you ask*).

The Subjunctive is used (as the indirect mood) —

   (*a*) In the subordinate clauses of dependent state-   **322**
       ments.

   (*b*) In dependent questions.   **323**

[322] The subjunctive of 322, 323, and 324, is a substitute for the indicative and imperative of 313, 314, and 315, when direct statements, questions or commands are reported and made to depend on verbs of *saying* or *thinking*, *asking* or *answering*, *commanding* or *forbidding*.

Direct statements, when made dependent on verbs of *saying* or *thinking*, change the indicative of the principal clauses to the infinitive; that of the subordinate clauses to the subjunctive.

The potential subjunctive, in principal clauses, becomes the infinitive of the active periphrastic conjugation.

Occasionally subordinate clauses, especially relative clauses, take the infinitive, being equivalent to principal clauses in their meaning. A few cases occur of the use of the infinitive by a sort of attraction, even in conditional clauses and the like.

The same principle often causes the subjunctive to be used in relative and other subordinate clauses, that do not depend on verbs of saying or thinking, but limit a sentence whose verb implies the thought or statement of another person. **Paetus libros, qvos frater suus reliqvisset, mihi donavit,** *Paetus gave me the books which his brother (as he said) had left.* Sometimes, by a careless construction, the verb of saying is inserted, and put in the subjunctive instead of the verb of the sentence, which in this case depends on the inserted verb. **literas, qvas me misisse diceret, recitavit,** *he read a letter which he said I had written.* Causal clauses also take the subjunctive on this principle, when the cause is given not on the authority of the speaker or writer, but of some other person, and show the same irregular insertion of **dico.** Compare [328].

Subordinate clauses remain in the indicative, when they form no part of the reported statements, but are inserted by the narrator as explanations. Occasionally, also, though very rarely in good writers, other subordinate clauses are found in the indicative.

[323] Direct questions, when made dependent on a verb of *asking* or *answering*, change their verbs to the subjunctive. **qvis est?** *who is he?* (direct); **nescio qvis sit,** *I know not who he is* (indirect); **qvanto res sit in periculo, cognoscunt,** *they learn in how great danger the matter is.*

In old Latin dependent questions are often in the indicative.

In long passages of a formal, reported speech, dependent questions are

324 | (*c*) In dependent commands.
| The SUBJUNCTIVE is used (in dependent sentences)—
325 | (*a*) In final clauses, and in substantive clauses developed from them.

sometimes in the infinitive. In such ·cases, the question is usually equivalent to a statement, and not asked for the sake of an answer. See 470, 477.

With **haud scio an, nescio an,** *I know not whether,* the verb often remains in the indicative, these phrases having become practically equivalent in force to adverbs, "*perhaps*," "*probably*."

[324] Direct commands, when made dependent on verbs of *commanding* or *forbidding*, change their verbs to the subjunctive. **patribus nuntia urbem muniant,** *tell the senate to fortify the city;* **jures postulo,** *I require you to swear;* **Ariovistus respondit, cum vellet, congrederetur,** *Ariovistus answered (telling him), to meet him when he pleased.* In many cases, however, **ut** or **ne** is inserted before the verb, thus making a purpose clause (see 325); and after **jubeo** and **veto,** less often after other verbs, the verb is changed to the infinitive, becoming an object. See 338.

[325] Final clauses denote purpose. In Latin they are relative clauses, and are introduced by relative pronouns or by relative adverbs. **legatos miserunt qvi dicerent,** *they sent envoys to say . . .* (lit. *who should say*).

Ut, *how,* is the most common to introduce a purpose clause. **Ne** is the negative of **ut,** and is used like a conjunction to introduce the purpose clause, **ut** being very rarely expressed before it. **ut iter faceret Genabum proficiscitur,** *he sets out to go to Genabus;* **postulavit ne qvem peditem Caesar adduceret,** *he demanded that Cæsar should bring along no foot-soldier;* **veni ut te hortarem,** *I came to encourage you.*

Qvō is generally used instead of **ut** when the purpose clause contains a comparative. **qvo minus** (often written as one word) is the negative of **qvo,** and is found after verbs of *hindering, refusing,* etc. **qvo fiat facilius,** *that it may be done the more easily;* **me deterret hiems qvominus eam,** *the storm prevents me from going.*

Qvī (an old abl. = **qvo**) is common in the older language. **qvin** (= **qvi ne**) is the negative of **qvi.** It is often difficult to decide whether clauses with **qvin** and **qvominus** should be put under the head of purpose or result clauses. See [326].

Ut is often omitted after verbs of *willingness* and *permission,* and after **dic** and **fac;** seldom elsewhere. **fac sis,** *see that you be . . .;* **dic veniat,** *tell him to come;* **volo facias,** *I wish you to do . . .;* **licet eas,** *you may go*

(*b*) In consecutive clauses, and in substantive clauses developed from them.	**326**

(lit., *it is allowed that you go*). **licet** with a following subjunctive often expresses a concession. **licet laudem fortunam, tamen . . . ,** *I may praise fortune, yet . . .* (= *though I praise, yet . . .*). **ne** is omitted after **cave, cavete. cave ignoscas,** *do not pardon* (compare [315] (*c*)). In many cases it is possible that these subjunctives might be classed as dependent commands; the verbs they depend on nearly all express *consent* or *command.*

The purpose clauses, **ut ita dicam,** *"so to speak"*; **ne longum sit,** *"to be brief,"* and the like, are used parenthetically, as in English. The same is the case with **nedum,** *"much less."* **sumptus sufferre neqveo, nedum possis,** *I cannot stand the expense, much less can you.*

Purpose clauses easily pass into substantive clauses, and are often used in Latin where subject or object clauses are used in English, especially after verbs denoting an exercise of the will; e.g., *wishing, permitting, commanding,* etc. After verbs of *fearing* this difference of idiom compels us to translate **ne** by *"that,"* and **ut** by *"that not."* **timeo ne veniat,** *I fear that he will come;* **timeo ut veniat,** *I fear that he will not come.*

[326] Consecutive clauses express a result. They are relative clauses in Latin, and are introduced by a relative pronoun, or by the relative adverbs **ut** or **qvin. tantus fuit terror ut Volusenus fidem non faceret,** *so great was the panic that Volusenus was not believed.* **qvin,** *"but that,"* is used after general negatives and after verbs of *hindering, doubting,* etc.; e.g., **non est dubium qvin,** *there is no doubt that . . . .*

Result clauses introduced by a relative pronoun express a characteristic, or a result of the nature or character of the antecedent; e.g., **non sum ille ferreus qvi non movear,** *I am not so callous as not to be moved.* They are most common after indefinite antecedents; e.g., **sunt qvi,** *there are (some) who;* **qvis est qvi,** *who is there that . . . ,* etc.; after **unus** and **solus;** and after general negatives **nemo, nullus, nihil.** In such clauses, **qvin** may be used for the nominative (rarely accusative) of the relative pronoun and a negative; e.g., **nemo est qvin putet,** *there is no one who does not think.*

Relative clauses of result may follow the adjectives **dignus, indignus, idoneus, aptus. dignus est qvi laudetur,** *he is worthy to be praised.* Here also belong the restrictive clause **qvod sciam,** *as far as I know,* and others like it.

Consecutive clauses, like final clauses, are very frequent in Latin where the English uses subject or object clauses, and it is often difficult to draw

327	(c) In conditions impliedly false.
	The SUBJUNCTIVE *may* be used, further —
328	(a) In causal clauses.

the line between purpose and result. Clauses with **qvin,** in particular, often seem to be final rather than consecutive, and it is often a matter of indifference to which use such object-clauses should be referred.

Consecutive clauses easily pass into subject or object-clauses, and occur with a great variety of verbs. As subject they are found with verbs meaning "*it happens,*" "*it remains,*" etc.; as object they are most common with verbs meaning "*accomplish,*" "*bring it about*"; **facio, efficio,** etc. In a few cases they pass into appositive clauses.

[327] Conditions impliedly false take the secondary tenses, — the imperfect for present time, the pluperfect for past time. **si tu hic esses,** *if you were in my place* (but you are not); **si adfuissem,** *if I had been there* (but I was not). Conditional clauses are introduced by **si,** *if,* and its compounds, or by a relative pronoun or adverb. Sometimes the conjunction **si** is omitted, as in English; *e.g.,* **fecisses,** *had you done* (= *if you had done*).

The primary tenses of the subjunctive are often used in conditions though the supposed case may be false, because the speaker or writer chooses to represent it as possible; *e.g.,* **tu si hic sis, aliter sentias,** *if you were I, you would feel differently* (more strictly, *if you should be in my case,* implying that such a thing is possible). Such are really future conditions in form, and come under 331.

Conjunctions meaning "*as if*" (**ac si, qvasi, qvamsi, tanqvam si, ut si, velut si, ceu,** also **tanqvam** and **velut** when **si** is omitted) are used with an ellipsis of the verb on which the condition depends. **ac si scripsisses,** *as (would be the case) if you had written ;* **velut haud ulla mora futura esset,** *as if there were to be no delay.* Here too the primary tenses are often used, though the connection shows that the supposed case is untrue ; *e.g.,* **tanqvam si claudus sim,** *as if I were lame* (i.e., *as would be the case if I should be lame*) ; **jacent tanqvam sine animo sint,** *they lie as if they were dead* (i.e., *as they would lie, if it should turn out that they are dead.* **essent** would imply that the speaker thinks that they are not dead).

[328] Causal clauses after a relative pronoun or **cum** take the subjunctive regularly, except in old Latin; after **qvoniam,** usually. After other causal conjunctions the indicative is used if the speaker or writer gives the cause on his own authority, the subjunctive if he gives it as the allegation of some one else. **qvae cum ita sint,** *since this is so ;* **Panaetius laudat Africanum qvod fuerit abstinens,** *Panætius praises Africanus because he*

was (as Panætius says) temperate. (Here Panætius is made responsible for the statement that Africanus was temperate; **qvod fuit** would make the statement the writer's.) The relative pronoun introducing a causal clause is often preceded by **ut, utpote, qvippe,** and the verb of the clause is sometimes, though rarely, in the indicative.

[329] Concessive clauses after **cum** are regularly in the subjunctive; after **qvamqvam,** in the indicative. Of the other conjunctions translated "*though,*" the compounds of **si** (**ac si, etsi,** etc., also **tanqvam, velut, sicut,** where **si** is omitted) introduce conditional clauses, and have the same construction; **qvamvis, ut** and **ne** take the subjunctive of doubtful command (see [321]); **licet** is a verb, and is followed by a final subjunctive with **ut** omitted (see [325]).

[330] Temporal clauses referring to past time usually take the indicative, except after **cum,** which takes the subjunctive of the secondary tenses; and, in later writers, after **anteqvam** and **priusqvam.**

Temporal clauses, however, in many cases express some other modification of the thought than simple time, and are therefore followed by the subjunctive. Thus : —

dum, dum modo take the subjunctive when they mean not simply "*as long as,*" but "*if,*" "*provided.*" **oderint dum metuant,** *let them hate as long as they fear* (i.e., *if they fear*).

dum, donec, quoad take the subjunctive when they imply purpose. **manebo, dum veniat,** *I shall wait for him to come* (*until he comes*).

ante qvam and **prius qvam** take the subjunctive of purpose, the clause expressing the act whose occurrence is to be prevented or anticipated, or, less often, a simple purpose, or something expected and counted on. **sic omne [opus] prius est perfectum qvam intellegeretur ab Afranio castra muniri,** *thus the whole work was finished before Afranius knew that the camp was being fortified* (i.e., *the work was done secretly, that Afranius might not know before it was done*); **anteqvam pronuntient, vocem sensim excitant,** *they excite the voice gradually, before they declaim* (i.e., *with the purpose or expectation of afterwards declaiming*).

The subjunctive is used in the same way with expressions that mean "*sooner than,*" "*rather than,*" — *e.g.,* **potius qvam, citius qvam, libentius qvam,** — though the idea of time has disappeared. **depugna, potius qvam servias,** *fight it out rather than be a slave* (i.e., *in order not to be a slave*). But **ut** is sometimes inserted after **qvam** in such clauses.

331 | (*d*) In future conditions.
332 | (*e*) In general conditions.
333 | (*f*) In clauses dependent on a subjunctive.

Use of the Non-Finite Verb-Forms.

334 The infinitive is a verbal noun, originally in the dative case. It has become, however, in Latin, an indeclinable noun, and may replace any case in construction, but is restricted to certain uses.

Temporal clauses may take the subjunctive also, if they have the same force as conditional clauses which would take the subjunctive.

[331] A future condition is one, the truth or falsity of which will appear, if at all, in the future. The future (or future perfect) indicative may be used in such, or the present (or perfect) subjunctive. The latter has much the same force as in a doubtful statement, and leaves the hypothesis doubtful. It corresponds to the English "*should*." **si veniat,** *if he should come;* **si probus sit,** *if he* (*should prove to*) *be honest.*

A relative or a temporal clause sometimes has the same force as a future condition, and takes the same construction.

[332] General conditions are such as refer to all time, and limit statements of general truths. **memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceas,** *the memory weakens, unless one exercises it.* The indicative is more common in such, except when the subject is an indefinite person, as in the quotation.

In later writers the secondary tenses of the subjunctive are sometimes used in conditional clauses (and in relative or temporal clauses implying a condition) to express a repeated action. **ubi dixisset,** *whenever he had said* . . .; **qvocunqve se intulisset,** *wherever he went* . . ., etc.

[333] Clauses dependent on a subjunctive are attracted into the subjunctive if they contain an essential part of the thought, or give a modification of the verb they limit, which could not be omitted without an essential change of the idea. Restrictive clauses, for example, become subjunctive if dependent on a subjunctive, while those which are simply explanatory or parenthetical remain in the indicative. **non pugnabo quominus utrum velis eligas,** *I shall not oppose your taking which you will.* Here the speaker gives his opponent the privilege of taking either of two alternatives; (**vis** would imply that the opponent had in some way shown his

The INFINITIVE is used —

(*a*) As an indirect object.	**335**
(*b*) To express purpose.	**336**
(*c*) As subject of a verb.	**337**
(*d*) As object of a verb.	**338**

choice, and that the speaker did not object to his taking *that one*, though he might not consent to his taking *the other*). The clause **utrum velis** is essential to the thought, because without it the speaker simply allows the taking of *one* alternative; with it, he allows the taking of *either one*.

In many cases, however, the subjunctive seems to be simply potential. See 316. Thus, **utrum velis** above, may be translated *"whichever you may wish."* Whether the speaker shall use the indicative or the subjunctive in such clauses is to a great extent a matter of choice, as he may prefer to make the statement more or less positive in form.

[**335**] The infinitive of indirect object (also called *complementary* infinitive) follows intransitive verbs which require a second action of the same subject to make their sense complete, and the passive voice of verbs of *saying* and *thinking*, when they have a personal subject. **possum videre,** *I can see* (lit., *I am powerful for seeing*); **Caesar dicitur advenisse,** *Cæsar is said to have arrived.* In some cases it is difficult to draw the line between the infinitive of indirect object and that of direct object. If the verb is transitive, the infinitive after it may be called direct object, but unless it takes a direct object in other constructions, the infinitive should be called indirect object. The English translation is no guide in such a case, as many verbs are transitive in English, while verbs of the same meaning are intransitive in Latin.

[**336**] This use is rare and poetical. It corresponds to the dative of purpose.

[**337**] The infinitive of subject or object is used as in English, but is far more common, being especially frequent with verbs of *saying* or *thinking*. It is thus used either with or without an expressed subject. **errare est humanum,** *to err is human;* **biennium sibi satis esse duxerunt,** *they thought that two years was enough for them.* For this infinitive the English often uses a subject or object clause with *"that,"* as in the example given.

[**338**] When the subject of an object infinitive is the same as that of the verb that governs it, this subject (**se**) is sometimes omitted. **quae**

339 | (e) As an appositive or predicate noun.
340 | (f) To limit nouns or adjectives as genitive, accusative or ablative.
341 | (g) In exclamatory phrases.
342 | (h) In vivid narration as a substitute for the indicative.

imperarentur, facere dixerunt, *they said that they were doing what was ordered.* (But se facere is more common.) In such cases, the predicate noun or adjective is usually attracted into the nominative. See [255].

[339] id nuntiatum est eos conari, *this news was brought, (namely) that they were trying ....* An infinitive is frequent in apposition with hoc, id, illud, etc., used as subject or object, where the infinitive itself might stand as subject or object. (Compare, in English, "*it is human to err,*" with "*to err is human.*") As a predicate-noun, the infinitive has nothing peculiar. vivere est cogitare, *living is thinking.*

[340] Rare and chiefly poetic. tempus est cogitare, *it is time to think;* dignus amari, *worthy to be loved;* parati certare, *ready to fight;* certus ire, *resolved to go.* The gerund or a derivative noun is generally used in such cases; dignus amore, parati ad certandum, certus eundi. In a few cases, it stands with a participle as ablative absolute, limiting the whole statement. See [307].

Many nouns and adjectives with the verb "be" have the force of verbs of saying or thinking, and take an infinitive which has the same force as an object infinitive. Thus, auctor sum, *I assert;* sum dolore affectus, *I am sorry,* etc. The infinitive after such seems to be object of the verbal notion implied, not depending directly on the noun or adjective, but governed by the verbal force of the phrase. It may be likened to the use of a direct object of a noun or adjective. See [262].

[341] The *exclamatory* infinitive may be compared with the nominative and accusative in exclamations. See 259 and 264. It is sometimes introduced by the interrogative particle -ne. hoc non videre! *not to see this!* mene desistere! *that I should cease!*

[342] Called *historical* infinitive. Occasionally found in rapid narration as a substitute for the present or imperfect indicative, and takes its subject in the nominative. Caesar frumentum flagitare (= flagitabat), *Cæsar kept demanding the corn.*

The PARTICIPLES are verbal adjectives, like the English participles. They are used —	**343**
(*a*) As simple adjectives, to limit nouns.	**344**
(*b*) As predicate adjectives with **sum,** to make the periphrastic conjugations.	**345**
(*c*) With the force of clauses.	**346**
The passive participles, when used as simple adjectives to limit nouns, often express a complex idea	**347**

[344] **furens regina,** *the raging queen;* **urbs mature peritura,** *a city destined soon to fall;* **fessi milites,** *wearied soldiers;* **hostis timendus,** *a fearful foe.* This use is most common with the present active and perfect passive participles. Some participles become adjectives altogether in force and construction.

The passive participles, in particular the present passive, when used as adjectives often have the force of the English verbal adjectives in *-able; e.g.,* **acceptus,** *acceptable;* **forma expetenda,** *desirable;* **sacra non adeunda,** *unapproachable;* **vix numeranda,** *almost innumerable.*

[345] This use is rare with the present active participle (where it makes a form equivalent to the present active of the verb; **amans est = amat**).

[346] This use is very common with the present active and perfect passive participles, especially in the construction of the ablative absolute, and the participle is predicate of the equivalent clause; the word it limits, subject. The participle thus used may have the force of a relative clause, modifying only the word it limits, but more frequently it modifies the whole statement and is equivalent to a temporal, causal, concessive, conditional, or (rarely) final clause; sometimes to an independent clause. **his rebus nunciatis,** *when this was reported;* **progressus in Nitiobriges,** *after he had advanced . . .;* **non audent, absente imperatore, egredi,** *they dare not go out, because the general is away;* **Cadurcus, in Rutenos missus,** *Cadurcus, who had been sent . . .;* **reluctante natura,** *if nature opposes;* **ut hos transductos necaret,** *to carry them over and kill them.* The present passive participle is rarely so used, however, being almost entirely restricted to uses (*a*) and (*b*); and the future active participle is not common in this use, though it is sometimes found with the force of a final clause, especially in later writers.

[347] **ab urbe condita,** *from the founding of the city;* **vos vitam ereptam negligetis?** *will you disregard the taking of life?* So always in

which is best rendered into English by a verbal or abstract noun containing the meaning of the participle, and an object or limiting phrase containing the meaning of the noun.

348 The GERUND is a verbal noun found in the oblique cases of the singular. It is declined and governed as a noun, but shows its verbal force in the fact that it is limited by adverbs, and may govern an object.

the gerundive construction. (See [349].) **consilia urbis delendae,** *plans for destroying the city;* **Platonis studiosus audiendi,** *desirous of hearing Plato.* So **ejecti reges,** *the expulsion of the kings;* **natus Augustus,** *the birth of Augustus,* etc. In **notum furens quid femina possit,** *the knowledge of what a mad woman can do,* the participle limits a clause.

[348] The name "nominative of the gerund" is often given to a construction, which most grammarians regard as an impersonal use of the passive periphrastic conjugation; *e.g.,* **mihi dormiendum est,** *I must sleep.* This construction resembles the passive periphrastic conjugation in conveying the notion of duty or propriety, but is sometimes like the gerund in being active and taking an object; *e.g.,* **via qvam nobis ingrediendum est,** *the road we must go;* **monendum te est mihi,** *I must warn you.* There seems to be no doubt that the gerund is a specialized use of the neuter of the present passive participle, at a period when the meaning and force of the form was not so definite as later. The gerund is often passive in force,— *e.g.,* **in res difficilis ad explicandum,** *a matter hard to be explained,*— and the passive participle is sometimes active, *e.g.,* **placenda dos est,** *the dower must please.* The "nominative of the gerund" seems to lie between the two.

The gerund in the genitive case, in a few instances, becomes so fully a noun that it takes an objective genitive instead of an object accusative, and takes the possessive pronoun adjective modifiers **mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri,** instead of an object; *e.g.,* **exemplorum eligendi potestas,** *a chance to select examples;* **vestri adhortandi causa,** *for the sake of your encouragement* (i.e., *of encouraging you*). (In cases like this, however, the genitives **mei, vestri,** etc., may be considered objective genitives like **exemplorum** above.)

The gerund is limited in its use as follows :—

In the genitive it may be a possessive, an appositive, or an objective genitive. In the dative it may be an indirect object, or may limit adjec-

The gerund of transitive verbs is rare, and its place **349** is usually supplied by the gerundive. This consists of a noun and the present passive participle in agreement with it (the two words expressing the complex idea spoken of in 347).

The SUPINE is a verbal noun, found only in the **350** accusative and ablative singular.

The accusative of the supine is used with verbs of **351** motion to express purpose.

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tives. In the accusative it may follow a few prepositions (**ad** most often). In the ablative it may denote means or specification, rarely separation, manner or circumstance, and may also follow prepositions (**in** most often).

[349] The name gerundive is often used of the participle only, and the noun and participle taken together are then called the "gerundive construction."

The gerundive is less restricted in its use than the gerund. Besides the uses of the gerund it is used in the genitive (with **causā** omitted?) to express purpose; in the dative to express purpose, see [272]; in the accusative as direct object; in the ablative to express manner or the standard of comparison. A few illustrations of both gerund and gerundive are added:—

GENITIVE. **cupidus te videndi,** *desirous of seeing you;* **finem facit dicendi,** *he makes an end of speaking;* **sui muniendi non Galliae impugnandae causā,** *for the sake of defending himself, not of attacking Gaul.*

DATIVE. **scribendo dat operam,** *he gives attention to writing;* **rubens ferrum non est habile tundendo,** *not good for forging.* So in the phrase **non esse solvendo,** *to be unable to pay,* and the like.

ACCUSATIVE. **non vacuus sum ad narrandum,** *I have no leisure for story-telling;* **ad eum oppugnandum,** *to attack him;* **signum collocandum consules locaverunt,** *the consuls let out the (job of) setting up the statue;* **aedem habuit tuendam,** *he had the care of the temple.*

ABLATIVE. **in dando munificus,** *free in giving;* **alitur vitium tegendo,** *a vice is nourished by hiding it;* **de contemnenda morte,** *concerning contempt for death;* **de liberis educandis,** *of the training of children.* So, often in the titles of philosophical treatises.

[351] **venit auxilium postulatum,** *he came to ask help.* This is strictly an accusative of limit. (See 265.)

With **ire,** "*go,*" the accusative of the supine make a construction nearly the same in force as the future tense; *e.g.,* **imusne sessum?** (*are we going*

352 | The ablative of the supine is used as an ablative of specification.   (See 300.)

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to sit?) shall we take a seat?   By putting the infinitive **ire** in the passive, a form is obtained to supply the lacking future infinitive passive; *e.g.*, **putat se visum iri,** *he thinks he will be seen.*

[352] **horribile visu!** *fearful to see!* **mirabile dictu!** *strange to tell!* In some of its uses the ablative of the supine seems to approach the meaning of a dative, and may be so called if one prefers. The form may be in either case.

With **opus** the ablative of the supine seems to come under the head of means rather than specification.   See [297].

PART V.

THE LAWS OF VERSE IN LATIN.

——◦◦——

Quantity.

Latin versification is based on a regular succession | **353**
of long and short syllables. Quantity is therefore
usually treated in connection with versification.

General rules of quantity are such as apply to all | **354**
syllables. (They have been given, 14–18.)

Special rules of quantity are such as apply only to | **355**
particular syllables. In Latin we have special rules
of quantity for final vowels of stems and for suffix-
vowels.

The original quantity of final vowels of stems and | **356**
of suffix-vowels has been changed in many instances
by certain tendencies affecting final syllables; viz.:—

———————————

[353] The system of versification described here was borrowed with
slight modifications from the Greek poets, and was in use during and after
the classical period. An older system, called Saturnian, is found in frag-
ments of the older Latin, in epitaphs, etc., but is not found in literature.

[354] The rules for syllables, long or short by position, do not always
apply in the comedies; syllables are treated as short in many cases, though
their vowels are followed by two consonants. This is especially the case
before final -s, which had but a slight sound in old Latin.

In older Latin also, many of the special rules of quantity which follow
are not applicable, as the tendencies spoken of had not taken effect so
fully as later. In most cases the difference consists in the use of a vowel
as long which is shortened in the later language. In a few cases the later
poets have followed the older quantity, in imitation of the older writers.

[356] These are called tendencies, and not rules, because they do not
act systematically but affect certain words and leave others untouched.

357	1. A tendency to shorten final open vowels.
358	2. A tendency to shorten vowels before final -m, -r and -t.
359	3. A tendency to lengthen final close vowels.
360	4. A tendency to lengthen open vowels before final -s.
361	5. A tendency to lengthen accented monosyllables.
362	6. A tendency to lengthen the vowel of a final syllable if an inflectional letter has been dropped.
363	These tendencies seem to be allowed freer play, or to be restricted in their effect, when for metrical convenience it is desirable to use a long syllable or a short one instead of the reverse.

It is probable that some old law of accent is at the bottom of most of them. Their influence is more often negative than positive, *i.e.*, they act as a restraint on certain syllables that would otherwise be more liable to change.

[360] When an open vowel is brought before final -s by the loss of **t** or **d**, the tendency to lengthen seldom shows itself.

[361] This tendency would explain **dās, dā, vās, pēs, grūs, sūs, vīs** (from **volo**), **vīs** (noun), various particles, and perhaps **sāl, sōl, lār, pār, mās,** though these fall also under No. 6. But it is difficult to see why the neuters, **mĕl, fĕl, ŏs,** etc., should be left short, or why certain unaccented prepositions and conjunctions should be made long; *e.g.*, why the preposition **ăb** should be short while the same preposition **ā** should be long. It is clear that accent does not explain the difference; and we may regard this tendency as doubtful, or greatly restricted.

[362] The inflectional letters most often lost are the nominative singular suffix -s of masculine and feminine semivowel-stems, and the suffix -**m** of the first singular active of verbs. The loss of a stem-letter does not seem to affect the preceding vowel. **vīs** (= **vil-s**) seems to come under No. 5.

[363] Thus **ăbĭēs, ărĭēs, părĭēs,** perhaps to prevent the concurrence of so many short syllables, are brought under the influence of No. 4, though usually such words remain unaffected. See [360]. A final syl-

The special rules for quantity are the following:—	**364**
I. In open vowel noun- and adjective-stems	
The vowel after the theme is short in the nom., acc. and voc. sg.; long elsewhere,	**365**
Except -ēs in the nom. sg. of e-stems. (4)	**366**
Except -ă in the nom. and acc. pl. of neuter o-stems. (1)	**367**
II. In close vowel noun- and adjective-stems	
The vowel after the theme is short in the nom. and acc. sg., and in the dat. and abl. pl.; long elsewhere,	**368**
Except -ēs in the nom. sg. of i-stems. (4)	**369**
Except -ū in the nom. and acc. sg. of neuter u-stems. (3)	**370**
III. The vowels of suffixes of nouns and adjectives, when not contracted with the stem-vowel, are short,	**371**
Except -ī final in the gen. and dat. sg. (3)	**372**
Except -ēs in the nom. and acc. pl. (4)	**373**
VI. The pronouns in general follow the rules of quantity for noun- and adjective-stems of like form.	**374**

lable may be subject to more than one tendency, acting in the same or in contrary directions; in the latter case a common syllable is sometimes the result. For example, ŏ̄, in the present indicative active first singular of the verb, comes under 6 and 1.

[364] The numbers following the exceptions refer to the tendencies that explain them.

[365] o is short in **duŏ**; sometimes in **ambŏ̄**. These rules, I. and II., are rules for final stem-vowels, but the expression "vowel after the theme" is used, because the stem-vowel often disappears by contraction with the vowel of the suffix.

[368] I-stems, when they lose i and become consonant-stems, of course come under rule III.

For **grūs, sūs** and **vīs**, see [361]. **Bōs** is contracted.

[374] **O** of **ĕgŏ** is short; **qvī** (nom.) is long. (5).

In the forms unlike those of nouns and adjectives, it should be noticed that we find the vowel after the theme long in

375   The nom. neuter forms in -c,   (6)

376   The personal pronouns, except the dat. sg.;

and common in

377   The gen. sg. ending -ĭus.

We find the suffix vowel

378   Common in the dat. sg., -bĭ, -hĭ.   (3)

379   Long in the dat. and abl. pl., -bīs.

380   **V.** In the nominative singular of consonant-stems the quantity of the last syllable of the stem is retained, except in

381   Nominatives in -ŏ from stems in -ōn and -ĭn. (1, 6)

382   Nominatives in -ŏr from stems in ōr.   (2)

383   arbōs, Cerēs, pubēs ; abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, pēs. (4)

384   sāl, lār, pār ; mās.   (5 or 6)

385   **VI.** In the verb the final vowel of vowel-stems is long

386   Except before final -m or -t.   (2)

387   **VII.** In the mood-and-tense signs the initial vowel before -r is short when unabsorbed ; the other vowels are long

388   Except before final -m, -r and -t.   (2)

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[378] The same suffix bĭ is found in ibĭ and ubĭ, old case-forms of **is** and **qvi.**

[385] The length of the final vowel of verb-stems is due to the absorption of the initial vowel of the sign or suffix. It is short, therefore, in those verb-forms that omit this vowel; viz., the verb **do,** throughout [except **dās, dā** (5)] and in the subjunctive **fŏrem,** etc., infinitive **fŏre,** and the twelve non-finite stem-forms given in |209].

In the imperative active second singular, the stem-vowel **e** is occasionally shortened in a few forms that are often used interjectionally; *e.g.,* **vĭdĕ,** *see!* **tacĕ,** *hush!* **cavĕ,** *beware!*

VIII. The vowels of verb-suffixes are short	**389**
Except final -ī. (3)	**390**
Except -ŏ of the ind., when unabsorbed. (1, 5)	**391**
Except -ō in the imper. endings -ītō, -ītōtĕ, -untō.	**392**
Except -ū in the fut. act. part. ending -tūro.	**393**
IX. The reduplication-prefix is short.	**394**
X. Uninflected monosyllables are long, if they end in a vowel; short, if they end in a consonant.	**395**
XI. In uninflected polysyllables the tendencies mentioned above have fuller effect, and become rules,	**396**
Except final -ā.	**397**

Versification.

Syllables, in Latin verse, are either long or short, a long syllable being in most cases the equivalent of two short ones.	**398**

[387] **E** is usually long in the perfect active ending -**ērunt** (rarely -**ĕrunt**); **i** is short in the perfect active ending -**ĭmus.** The occasional shortening of **ĭ** in the perfect subjunctive sign is due to confusion with the future perfect indicative. See [175].

[389] For **ĭ** in the future perfect active suffixes, see [179].

[390] The final **ī** of -**ĭmĭnī** is properly a nominative plural ending of an old participial form, and therefore long by rule III.

[395] **Crās** and **ēn** are long; also **nōn** (contracted). **Cūr, hīc, hūc, qvīn, sīc, sīn,** contain old case-forms.

Qvĕ, nĕ, vĕ, cĕ, ptĕ, are always attached to other words, and are therefore not monosyllabic in their use. **Rĕ-** is usually short (standing for an older form **rĕd-**).

[396] Final **ē** and **ō** in adverbs from o-stems are only apparent exceptions; such adverbs are old case-forms. But a few of these are shortened (by 1), giving **benĕ, malĕ, infernĕ, supernĕ; citŏ, modŏ, ilicŏ, profectŏ;** rarely other words. **ōhē** should, perhaps, be two words.

[397] Final **a** is shortened in **ejă, ită, pută, quiă** (an old accusative plural). Note as an exception also **penĕs.**

399   A foot is a combination of two or more syllables, used as the element of a verse.

400   The fundamental feet in Latin verse are the following : —

401   The Dactyl   (*one long, two short*), $\perp \cup \cup$.

402   The Anapest (*two short, one long*), $\cup \cup \perp$.

403   The Trochee (*one long, one short*), $\perp \cup$.

404   The Iambus   (*one short, one long*), $\cup \perp$.

405   By substituting a long syllable for the two short ones in the dactyl or anapest we get a spondee, — —; and by resolving the long syllable of the trochee or iambus into two short ones, we get a tribrach, $\cup \cup \cup$. These are not used as the fundamental foot of a verse, but are often substituted for it; and may therefore be called "substitute" feet.

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[401] It will be noticed that the dactyl and anapest, being equivalent to four short syllables, correspond to quadruple time in music, while the trochee and iambus correspond in like manner to triple time. They may be represented in musical notation as follows : —

DACTYL.   ANAPEST.   SPONDEE.

TROCHEE.   IAMBUS.   TRIBRACH.
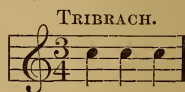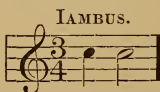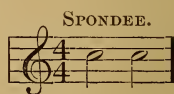
The accent given above shows the metrical stress. Substitute feet take the metrical accent of the feet they replace, and when a long syllable is resolved into two short ones, the metrical stress falls on the first of the two short.

In lyric and dramatic writers are found other feet also; viz.: the Pyrrhic, $\cup \cup$; the Bacchius, $\cup$ — —; the Cretic, — $\cup$ —. By combining the fundamental feet and their substitutes are formed various compound feet; *e.g.*, Diiambus, $\cup$ — $\cup$ —; Ditrochee, — $\cup$ — $\cup$; Dispondee, — — — —; Choriambus, — $\cup \cup$ —; Greater Ionic, — — $\cup \cup$; Lesser Ionic, $\cup \cup$ — —; etc.

The trochee and iambus are not used singly to form verses, but in pairs, called *dipodies*. | **406**

A verse is a set of feet or dipodies, recurring regularly, and forming a "line" of poetry. | **407**

Verses are named from their fundamental foot, and from the number of feet or dipodies they contain. | **408**

The most common kinds of verse are the following : — | **409**

(*a*) Dactylic Hexameter, — six dactyls or equivalent spondees. Its scale is | **410**

$$\_\cup\cup \quad \_\cup\cup \quad \_\cup\cup \quad \_\cup\cup \quad \_\cup\cup \quad \_\smile$$
$$\_\,\_ \quad \_\,\_ \quad \_\,\_ \quad \_\,\_ \quad (\_\ \_)$$

The spondee is regular in the sixth foot, but rare in the fifth. | **411**

(*b*) Dactylic Pentameter, — two parts, each of two dactyls and a half. Its scale is | **412**

$$\_\cup\cup \quad \_\cup\cup \quad \_ \quad | \quad \_\cup\cup \quad \_\cup\cup \quad \smile$$
$$\_\,\_ \quad \_\,\_$$

The spondee is allowed in the first part, not in the second. | **413**

[408] Dactylic, trochaic, iambic, etc., from the kind of foot; monometer, dimeter, trimeter, etc., from the number of feet or dipodies.

[410] The cæsura (see 420) usually falls in the third foot; less often in the fourth, or second.

[411] A trochee often replaces the final spondee. See 419.

[412] The dactylic pentameter is the same as the hexameter, with the loss of the second half of the third and sixth feet. This loss is analogous to a rest in music. The pentameter is not used alone, but alternately with the hexameter to form the "elegiac couplet." The following verses give illustrations of this use, and show the character of each kind of verse : —

> ille ĕgŏ qvī fŭĕrim, ‖ tĕnĕrōrum lūsŏr ămōrum,
>   qvem lĕgis, ut nōris, ‖ accĭpĕ postĕrĭtās.
> Sulmo mihi patria est, ‖ gĕlĭdis ūberrĭmus undīs,
>   mīlĭă qvī nŏvĭēs ‖ distăt ăb urbĕ dĕcĕm.

414   Iambic and trochaic verses are composed of dipodies, and verses of various length occur, either complete or catalectic (*i.e.*, lacking the last syllable).

415   The first foot of any iambic dipody, and the second foot of any trochaic dipody may be replaced by a spondee, or, rarely, by the equivalent of an iambus, trochee or spondee.

416   In comedy the spondee, and the equivalents of the spondee, the trochee, or the iambus may stand in any foot except the last.

417   In order to understand the structure of Latin verse, the following facts of usage must be noted: —

418   (*a*) A final vowel, or final -m with the foregoing vowel, is regularly dropped when the next word begins with a vowel or **h**.

419   (*b*) The last syllable of a verse may be either long or short at the option of the writer.

ēdĭtŭs hinc ĕgŏ sum, ‖ nec nōn ūt tempŏră nōrĭs,
cum cecĭdĭt fātō ‖ consŭl ŭterqvĕ părī:
sī qvĭd ĭd est, usqve ā prŏăvīs ‖ vĕtŭs ordĭnĭs hērēs,
non mŏdŏ fortūnae ‖ mūnĕrĕ factŭs ĕquĕs.

(For the loss of a final vowel in verse before an initial vowel, see 418.)

[414] The most common iambic verse is the trimeter, consisting of three dipodies; the most common trochaic verse is the tetrameter catalectic; four dipodies, but lacking the last syllable. The cæsura of the former occurs in the second dipody, usually in the first foot; the latter is divided uniformly by a diæresis after the second dipody.

[416] Various kinds of verses, besides those mentioned here, are found in the lyric poets, and the editions of their writings generally contain schedules of the metres used. It has not seemed necessary, therefore, to insert any description of them here.

[418] Called *elision*. It occurs very rarely at the end of a verse. Rarely, also, a vowel remains unelided within a verse. Such cases are called *hiatus*.

[419] *I.e.*, a short syllable may be used though the meter calls for a long one, and *vice versa*.

(*c*) Long verses are regularly divided into two **420**
nearly equal parts by a metrical pause, which usually
coincides with a pause in the sense. . This pause is
called *cæsura* when it occurs within a foot, and
diæresis when it falls between feet.

(*d*) Metrical irregularities occur at times, as in **421**
English poetry. A short syllable is found now and
then where the metre calls for a long one, or a long
one where the metre requires a short one. Two
syllables are sometimes run into one. Such irregu-
larities are very rare in good poets.

[420] A *cæsura* occurs whenever a foot is divided between two words,
but the name is usually given only to the *chief cæsura* as here. The
dactylic pentameter gives a good illustration of diæresis.

SUPPLEMENT TO SYNTAX.

[A few peculiarities of usage, belonging rather to the lexicon, or to a manual of Latin composition, than to a grammar, are added here for convenience of reference.]

A. Negative Particles.

422   The usual negative is **nōn.**

423   An older negative is **haud.**   It survives in a few phrases.

424   **Nē** is used in commands and in final sentences, also in **nē . . . quidem,** *not even.*

425   **nĕqvĕ** (or **nĕc**) is equivalent to **et nōn; nēvĕ** (or **neu**) to **et nē.**

B. Interrogative Particles.

426   Questions answered by *yes* or *no* are not indicated, as in English, by the order of the words, but by the use of the interrogative particles **-nĕ** and **num.**

427   **-nĕ** appended to the prominent word of the sentence shows that it is a question, but gives no indication what answer is expected.

428   The insertion of a negative word shows, as in English, that the answer *yes* is expected.   In such cases **-nĕ** is appended to the negative as the prominent word.

429   **num** shows that the answer *no* is expected.

     aderasne? *were you present?*   **dixitne?** *did he speak?*

     nonne aderas? *were you not present?*   **nunqvamne dicet?** *will he never speak?*

     num aderas? *you were not present, were you?*

430   The interrogative particle is sometimes omitted.

431   Questions are usually answered by repeating some of the words of the question, but sometimes **non** is used for *no,* and **etiam, vero,** or some other adverb of emphasis, for *yes.*

Alternative or double questions generally take **utrum** or **-ne** in the first member, and **an** in the second. | **432**

    utrum aderas an aberas? *were you present or absent?*

If the second member is simply a negative, "*or not*," it is expressed by **an non** or **necne**. | **433**

    utrum aderas necne? *were you present or not?*

The first member of an alternative question is sometimes omitted, and **an** seems to introduce a single question. In such cases the question expresses some surprise, and **an** is nearly equivalent to **num**. | **434**

    an aderas? [*am I mistaken or*] *were you present?*

C. Use of the Pronouns.

The use of the pronouns is, in general, as follows: —

Ego and **tu** are used as in English, but are regularly omitted in the nominative case, except when emphatic, as the personal endings of the verb express them. | **435**

nos is sometimes used for a single person (= **ego**); **vos** is never so used for **tu**. | **436**

sui is used for *him, her, them, their,* when these words refer to the subject of the clause in which they stand. In a dependent clause **sui** refers to the subject of the principal clause, if the subordinate clause expresses the purpose or thought of that subject. (For a pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, a demonstrative is used. See below.) | **437**

se and **suus** are sometimes used, however, referring to some other word than the subject, if no ambiguity is caused by doing so. | **438**

The possessive pronouns are used as in English. **Suus**, like **sui**, is reflexive. (For a third person possessive, not reflexive, the genitive of a demonstrative, **ejus, illius,** etc., is used.) | **439**

Hic means *this;* **ille**, *that;* **iste**, *that* (*of yours*), and from its frequent use in addressing an opponent, often has a contemptuous meaning. **is** is a weaker *this* or *that*, and is the usual third personal pronoun not reflexive. As antecedent of a relative, **is qvi** means "*he who*," "*any one who*"; **ille qvi** means "*that (man yonder) who.*" | **440**

441   **Ipse,** when used as a substantive, is an emphatic "*he*," "*he himself.*" As an adjective, it emphasizes the word it limits; **homo ipse,** "*the man himself,*" "*the very man*"; **ego ipse,** "*I myself,*" etc. The genitive is used to emphasize the possessive idea of the possessive pronouns; **mea ipsius sententia,** *my own opinion.*

442   When subject and object are the same, the Latin regularly emphasizes the former. **me ipse diligo,** *I love myself* (not **me ipsum**).

443   The relative **qvi** has the same force as the English *who, which,* or *that,* but is used more freely, often where the English uses a separate independent statement, so that **qvi** has the same force as **et is, et ille,** or **is autem, ille vero,** etc.

444   The indefinite pronouns in general mean *some, any, one,* etc. **qvidam** means "*a certain*"; **qvis** and **qvispiam,** "*one,*" "*any one*"; **aliqvis,** "*some one.*" **qvivis** and **qvilibet** mean "*any one you please*"; **qvisqvam** and **ullus,** "*any whatever,*" and are usually used in negative sentences, so that with the negative they mean "*none at all.*"

445   Many other words are used to express the indefinite idea of *some, any, a few,* etc. Their force and meaning must be learned from the lexicon and by practice in reading and writing the language.

D. Forms of Conditional Sentences.

446   Conditional clauses are regularly introduced by **si,** *if,* or a compound of **si,** and the verb of such a clause usually takes the mood of the verb on which it depends. The dependent condition is often called a *protasis,* the conclusion on which it depends an *apodosis.*

447   There are three well-marked forms of conditional sentences, — (*a*) with the indicative; (*b*) with a primary tense of the subjunctive; (*c*) with a secondary tense of the subjunctive : —

448   (*a*) The indicative in conditions has its usual force and needs no special explanation. It regularly limits an indicative, but may depend on an imperative or a subjunctive of command. It implies nothing as to the truth or falsehood of the supposed case.

si deus es, tribuere mortalibus beneficia debes, *if you are a god, you ought to give benefits to men.*

sin autem homo es, semper cogita ... etc., *but if you are a man, always consider ... etc.*

inteream, si novi! *may I perish if I know!*

(*b*) The primary tenses of the subjunctive denote the non-existence of the supposed state, but imply its possibility, and refer therefore to the future. They usually limit a present or perfect potential subjunctive, but are also used to limit verbs whose meaning is such as to express a potential or hypothetical idea; *e.g.*, **debeo, possum, volo**, etc., or the periphrastic conjugation forms. See 331. **449**

si negem, mentiar, *if I should deny it, I should lie.*

defendat patrem, si arguatur, *he would defend his father, if he should be accused.*

(The perfect tense is rare, and differs from the present only in laying stress on the completion of the action.) **450**

(*c*) The secondary tenses of the subjunctive express the non-reality of the supposed case, and refer therefore to the present or past, the imperfect being used for present time, the pluperfect for past. They regularly limit an imperfect or pluperfect potential subjunctive. See 327. **451**

pacem non peterem nisi utilem crederem, *I should not ask for peace, if I did not think it advantageous.*

te necassem, nisi iratus essem, *I should have killed you had I not been angry.*

The second person singular of the present and imperfect subjunctive is used, moreover, in a general condition, to limit a present or imperfect indicative which states a general truth. See 332. **452**

mens et animus, nisi oleum instilles extingvuntur senectute, *mind and soul are extinguished by age, unless one pours in oil.*

si attenderes acrius, strepitus vinculorum reddebatur, *if one listened more attentively, the rattling of chains was heard.*

453   The conditional particle **si** is sometimes omitted.   The verb
is then usually put first, as in English.

    roges me, nihil respondeam, *should you ask me, I should
make no answer;* **dedisses,** *had you given,* etc.

454   So **absqve te esset,** *were it not for you,* and like expressions
in the comic poets.

455   The real conclusion is often omitted, or only implied in an
epithet or exclamation.   In such cases a conditional subjunc-
tive often seems to limit an indicative, but the sense of the
passage usually suggests the proper conclusion.   Here belong
expressions of wishing with **O si** (see 320); clauses expressing
a comparison after **qvasi,** etc. (see [327]), subjunctives depend-
ing on **debeo, possum,** etc. (see 449), and various cases where
the writer prefers to put a direct statement in place of a
doubtful one suggested by the form of the thought.

456   Relative and temporal clauses sometimes imply a condition,
and take the same construction as the implied condition would
take, if formally expressed.

E.   Reported Speech.

457   Reports of speeches or thoughts of others may be made by
quoting the exact words uttered or thought, or with the form
changed by making the words or thoughts dependent on some
verb of saying or thinking, etc.   In the latter case, the language
is called "oratio obliqua," or "indirect discourse."   *E.g.,* "*He
said that he had made a mistake,*" is indirect discourse corre-
sponding to the direct form ("oratio recta"), "*I have made a
mistake.*"

458   When the words of a speaker or writer are quoted in the in-
direct form, the following changes take place: —

459   (*a*) The pronouns will change in person, as in English,
according to the circumstances and requirements of the sense
(ordinarily all becoming of the third person).

460   (*b*) The tenses only change as required by the rule of se-
quence, 312.   But the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive in
a condition impliedly false remains after primary tenses, to
prevent confusion of meaning with future or possible condi-

tions, and the primary tenses are often retained after a secondary tense for vividness or exactness.

(c) When indicatives of those tenses which have no subjunctive (viz., *future* and *future perfect*) are changed to the subjunctive, or when indicatives of those tenses that have no infinitive (viz., *imperfect, pluperfect, future,* and *future perfect*) are changed to the infinitive, they take the tense nearest them in time. Thus the — | **461**

{ Future ind. becomes pres. subj. (or imperfect by sequence).	**462**
{ Fut. pf. ind. " perf. subj. (or pluperfect by sequence).	**463**
{ Imperf. ind. " perfect infinitive.	**464**
{ Plupf. ind. " perfect infinitive.	**465**
{ Future ind. " present inf. of active periphrastic conj.	**466**
{ Fut. pf. ind. " present inf. of active periphrastic conj.	**467**

(d) The moods change as follows : —

In *principal* sentences,

Statements { in ind. (313) become infinitive. | **468**
{ in sub. (316) " { inf. of active periph. conj. (usually perf., rarely pres.) | **469**

Questions { in ind. (314) 1st & 3d pers. } " infinitive. | **470**
{ in ind. (314) 2d person } " subjunctive. | **471**
{ in sub. (317) " subjunctive. | **472**

Commands { in imp. (315) " subjunctive. | **473**
{ in sub. (318) " subjunctive. | **474**

In *subordinate* sentences,

All verbs { in ind. } { in sub. } " subjunctive. | **475**

As the first periphrastic conjugation has only an active meaning, when a subj. of statement is passive, it is expressed in the oratio obliqua by **futurum fuisse ut** (less often **futurum esse** or **fore**), followed by a passive verb. | **476**

(e) Relative clauses, though subordinate in form, are in many cases equivalent to principal clauses, and statements contained in such are sometimes treated as principal statements and are | **477**

put in the infinitive instead of the subjunctive. In a few
cases other subordinate clauses are treated in the same way, if
the meaning would not be changed by making them inde-
pendent in the direct form. The same principle is the cause of
the use of the infinitive in reported questions of the first or
third person, these questions being usually equivalent to state-
ments, and put in the form of questions only for rhetorical
effect.

478   (*f*) The indicative is used in explanatory clauses inserted by
the narrator, and not belonging, therefore, to the reported
speech. Rarely, also, the indicative is found in other subordi-
nate clauses.

F.   Order of Words and Clauses.

479   In a normal prose sentence the subject comes first and is
followed by its modifiers; the verb stands last, preceded by
its modifiers.

480   Modifiers of nouns may either follow or precede their nouns;
modifiers of other parts of speech more often precede.

481   Demonstrative pronouns usually precede, and relative and
interrogative pronouns regularly stand at the beginning of their
clauses.

482   Modifying clauses are subject to the same general rules of
order as words and phrases; those which limit nouns more
often follow; those which limit verbs more often precede.

483   Few sentences of any length, however, show the normal order,
as the usual position of words and clauses is constantly varied
for the sake of rhythm or emphasis.

484   No definite statement of the influence of rhythm on the order
of words can be given, but a dislike of a monosyllable (other
than **est** or **sunt**) at the end of a sentence or of a line of poetry
is noticeable in good Latin writers.

485   Any word may be emphasized by putting it out of its usual
position. The beginning and end of a sentence are the specially
emphatic positions.

486   In poetry the order of words is fixed to a great extent by the
requirements of metre.

G. Dates.

The year is expressed in Latin by giving the names of the | **487**
consuls for that year in the ablative absolute, or by the number
of years from the founding of the city; *e.g.*: —

> *L. Pisone, A. Gabinio consulibus* ⎫
> *anno urbis conditae DCXCVI* ⎬ = 58 B.C.
> *anno ab urbe condita DCXCVI* ⎭

These expressions are seldom written in full. For *consulibus* | **488**
we find *coss.*; for *anno urbis conditae, a. u. c.*

The month is expressed by *mense* with the proper month- | **489**
name added as an adjective; *e.g.*, *mense Junio*, in June; *exeunte
mense Aprili*, at the end of April, etc.

The day of the month was reckoned backward from three | **490**
fixed dates, the Kalends, Nones, and Ides (*Kalendae, Nonae,
Idus*); the first being originally the day of the new moon, the
last, that of the full moon. The Kalends was the first day of
the month; the Nones was usually the fifth, but in March,
May, July, and October, the seventh; the Ides was the eighth
day after the Nones, and, therefore, the thirteenth or fifteenth.

Dates falling on the Kalends, Nones or Ides were expressed | **491**
by *Kalendis, Nonis* or *Idibus*, with the name of the month
added as an adjective; *e.g.*, *Kalendis Juniis* (June 1), *Nonis
Aprilibus* (April 5), *Idibus Decembribus* (Dec. 13), etc.

Dates falling between the Kalends and Nones are reckoned | **492**
backward from the Nones. The day before the Nones was
called *pridie Nonas* (see [268]); the second day before was
expressed by *tertio die ante Nonas*, or *ante diem tertium Nonas*, | .
as the Romans counted in the day reckoned from. In like
manner the third day before was called *fourth*, etc.

Dates falling between the Nones and Ides were expressed in | **493**
the same way, *pridie Idus Aprilis, ante diem sextum Idus Martias*,
etc. So, too, dates falling between the Ides and Kalends, the
adjective added being, of course, the name of the following month.

These expressions are seldom written in full, the usual con- | **494**
traction being of the form *prid. Kal. Mart., IV. Non. Apr., VI.
Id. Sept.*, etc.; or *a. d. iv Non. Apr.*, etc.

In leap-year the 24th of February was counted twice, so that | **495**
both the 24th and 25th of the month were called *VI. Kal. Mart.*

496 | The days of the months are given in the following schedule: —

DAY OF MONTH.	JANUARY (also AUGUST and DECEMBER).	FEBRUARY.		MARCH (also MAY, JULY, and OCTOBER).	APRIL (also JUNE, SEPT., and NOVEMBER).
1	Kal. Jan.	Kal. Feb.		Kal. Mart.	Kal. Apr.
2	IV Non. Jan.	IV Non. Feb.		VI Non. Mart.	IV Non. Apr.
3	III " "	III " "		V " "	III " "
4	prid. " "	prid. " "		IV " "	prid. " "
5	Non. Jan.	Non. Feb.		III " "	Non. Apr.
6	VIII Id. Jan.	VIII Id. Feb.		prid. " "	VIII Id. Apr.
7	VII " "	VII " "		Non. Mart.	VII " "
8	VI " "	VI " "		VIII Id. Mart.	VI " "
9	V " "	V " "		VII " "	V " "
10	IV " "	IV " "		VI " "	IV " "
11	III " "	III " "		V " "	III " "
12	prid. " "	prid. " "		IV " "	prid. " "
13	Id. Jan.	Id. Feb.		III " "	Id. Apr.
14	XIX Kal. Feb.	XVI Kal. Mart.		prid. " "	XVIII Kal. Maias.
15	XVIII " "	XV " "		Id. Mart.	XVII " "
16	XVII " "	XIV " "		XVII Kal. Apr.	XVI " "
17	XVI " "	XIII " "		XVI " "	XV " "
18	XV " "	XII " "		XV " "	XIV " "
19	XIV " "	XI " "		XIV " "	XIII " "
20	XIII " "	X " "		XIII " "	XII " "
21	XII " "	IX " "		XII " "	XI " "
22	XI " "	VIII " "	In leap year.	XI " "	X " "
23	X " "	VII " "		X " "	IX " "
24	IX " "	VI " "	VI Kal. M.	IX " "	VIII " "
25	VIII " "	V " "	VI " "	VIII " "	VII " "
26	VII " "	IV " "	V " "	VII " "	VI " "
27	VI " "	III " "	IV " "	VI " "	V " "
28	V " "	prid. " "	III " "	V " "	IV " "
29	IV " "		prid." "	IV " "	III " "
30	III " "			III " "	prid. " "
31	prid. " "			prid. " "	

497 | The schedule here given was in use after Cæsar's reform of the calendar, B.C. 45. Before that date the Roman year had only 355 days, and an extra month was inserted every other year after Feb. 23.

APPENDIX.

———◦✦◦———

498. List of Verbs

[This list contains all the verbs of the Latin language, with the following exceptions, viz. : —

1. Stems in **-a** or **-i**, which use the simple stem as present stem and form the perfect stem by adding **-v**. Most of them are derived from nouns or adjectives, and form their principal parts after the models here given : —

dōno	donāre	donāvi	donātum	dōna-
fīnio	finīre	finīvi	finītum	fīni-

2. Consonant-stems which form the present stem by adding **-e**, and the perfect stem by adding **-u**; and lack the forms from the simple stem. Most of them are derived from nouns or adjectives, and form their principal parts after the model here given : —

flōreo	florēre	florui		flōr-

3. Verbs which form the present stem by adding **-sc**, **-esc** or **-isc**, and have only the incomplete tenses, or form the perfect stem, when one is found, by adding **-u**. Examples are : —

gemmasco	gemmascĕre		gemma-
rōresco	rorescĕre		rōr-
ingĕmisco	ingemiscĕre	ingemui	in-gĕm-

4. Compounds which do not differ from the simple verb, or differ only in the usual weakening of the stem vowel, or in being defective. Weakening of diphthongs is mentioned, however.

The supine form is given, though but few verbs have a supine in use, whenever a future active or perfect passive participle is found to decide what the form of the supine would be.

Forms preceded by a hyphen (*e.g.*, **-lictus**) are found only in compounds.]

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
Accerso (another spelling of **arcesso**).					
ăcuo	acuĕre	acui	acūtum	*sharpen*	ăcu-
aegreo	aegrēre			*be sick*	aegr-?
ădŏlesco (see -oleo)				*grow*	ăd-ŏle-
agnosco (see nosco)				*know*	ad-gno-
ăgo	agĕre	ēgi	actum	*drive*	ăg-
āјo (defective. See [235].)				*say*	āg-?
albeo	albēre			*be white*	alb-?
algeo	algēre	alsi		*be cold*	alg-
ălo	alĕre	alui	altum	*nourish*	ăl-

alĭtum also in later writers.

ămĭcio	amicīre	amici	amictum	*clothe*	ămĭc-

amicui, amixi are mentioned as perf.

ango	angĕre			*throttle, vex*	ang-
ăpiscor	apisci		aptus	*get*	ăp-
arceo	arcēre	arcui	{ arctus / artus	*inclose*	arc-

In compounds, **ex-ercĭtus, co-ercĭtus.**

arcesso	arcessĕre	arcessīvi	arcessītum	*summon*	arcess-i-
ardeo	ardēre	arsi	arsum	*be on fire*	ard-
arguo	arguĕre	argui	argūtum	*charge*	argu-

arguĭturus, once.

audeo	audēre		ausum	*dare*	aud-

For perf. **ausus sum** is used. See [216] (*g*).

ăve (defective. See [235].)				*hail!*	
ăveo	avēre			*long*	ăv-?
augeo	augēre	auxi	auctum	*increase*	aug-

Bātuo	batuĕre	batui		*beat*	bātu-
bĭbo	bibĕre	bĭbi		*drink*	bĭb-

The stem is properly **ba**, but becomes **bib-** by reduplication and loss of the final vowel. See [158].

-būro	-burĕre	-bussi	-bustum	*burn*	būs-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.—
Cădo	cadĕre	cĕcĭdi	cāsum	*fall*	căd-
caecūtio	caecutīre			*be blind*	caecūti?
caedo	caedĕre	cĕcĭdi	caesum	*fell, kill*	caed-

Compounds weaken ae to ī.

căleo	calēre	calui	calĭtum	*be hot*	căl-
calveo	calvēre			*be bald*	calv-?
calvor	calvi			*play tricks*	calv-
cāneo	canēre			*be gray*	cān-?
căno	canĕre	cĕcĭni	(-cantum)	*sing*	căn-

In compounds, the perfect is -cĭnui (oc-cĕcĭni once).

căpesso	capessĕre	capessīvi	capessītum	*seize*	căpess-i-
căpio	capĕre	cēpi	captum	*take*	căp-
căreo	carēre	carui	carĭtum	*be in want*	căr-
cāro	carēre			*card*	cār-
carpo	carpĕre	carpsi	carptum	*pluck*	carp-
căveo	cavēre	cāvi	cautum	*beware*	căv-

cavĭtum, rare.

cēdo	cedĕre	cessi	cessum	*yield*	cēd-
cĕdo (imperative) plur. cette, no other forms.				*give*	cĕd-?
-cello	-cellere	-cŭli	-culsum	*strike?*	cĕl-

Also ex-cellui.   celsus, excelsus, praecelsus are adjectives.

-cendo	-cendĕre	-cendi	-censum	*set on fire*	cend-
censeo	censēre	censui	censum	*count*	cens-
cerno	cernĕre	crēvi	crētum	*decide*	cĕr-, cre-

certus is used as an adjective.

{ cieo { cio	{ ciēre { cīre	cīvi	cītum	*stir up*	ci-

In compounds also -cītus sometimes.

cingo	cingĕre	cinxi	cinctum	*gird*	cing-
clango	clangĕre			*clang*	clang-
claudo	claudĕre	clausi	clausum	*close*	claud-

Compounds weaken the stem to -clūd.

clĕpo	clepĕre	clepsi	cleptum	*steal*	clĕp-
clueo	cluĕre		-clŭtum	*be called*	clu-
coenātŭrio	coenaturīre			*wish to dine*	coenātŭri-?

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Sup. or Part.		Stem.
cognosco	(see nosco)			*know*	co-gno-
cōgo	cogĕre	coēgi	coactum	*compel*	co-ăg-
cŏlo	colĕre	colui	cultum	*cultivate*	cŏl-
coepio	coepĕre	coepi	coeptum	*begin*	co-ăp-
cōmo	comĕre	compsi	comptum	*comb*	cōm-
comperco	compercĕre	compersi		*save*	com-parc-
comperio	(see pario)			*find out*	com-păr-
compesco	(see pasco)			*curb*	com-păs-
concino	(see cano)			*sing*	con-căn-
consŭlo	consulĕre	consului	consultum	*consult*	consŭl-
cŏqvo	coqvĕre	coxi	coctum	*cook*	cŏqv-
crēdo	credĕre	credĭdi	credĭtum	*believe*	crē-d-
crĕpo	crepāre	crepui	crepĭtum	*rattle*	crĕp-
crēsco	crescĕre	crēvi	crētum	*grow*	cre-
{ cŭbo { -cumbo	{ cubāre { -cumbere	cubui	cubĭtum	*lie*	cŭb-
cubāvi, rare.					
cūdo	cudĕre	cūdi	cūsum	*hammer*	cūd-
cŭpio	cupĕre	cupīvi	cupītum	*desire*	cŭp-i
Imperfect subjunctive cupīret once.					
curro	currĕre	cŭcurri	cursum	*run*	curr-
Compounds sometimes retain the reduplication.					
-cŭtio	(see qvătio).				

Dēbeo	debēre	debui	debĭtum	*owe*	dēb-
dēgo	degĕre			*pass time*	dēg-
dēleo	delēre	delēvi	delētum	*destroy*	dē-le-
dēmentio	dementīre			*be mad*	dēmenti-?
dēmo	demĕre	dempsi	demptum	*remove*	dēm-
depso	depsĕre	depsui	depstum	*knead*	deps-
dīco	dicĕre	dixi	dictum	*say*	dīc-
dīlego	(see lĕgo).				
disco	discere	dĭdĭci		*learn*	dĭc-
Compounds keep the reduplication.					
dīvĭdo	dividĕre	dīvīsi	dīvīsum	*divide*	dī-vĭd-
do (see 226)	dăre	dĕdi	dătum	*give*	da-
Compounds retain the reduplication (except abscon-di).					

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Sup. or Part.		Stem.
dŏceo	docēre	docui	doctum	*teach*	dŏc-
dŏleo	dolēre	dolui	dolĭtum	*grieve*	dŏl-
dŏmo	domāre	domui	domĭtum	*tame*	dŏm-
dūco	ducĕre	duxi	ductum	*lead*	dŭc-
Ēdo (see 223)	edĕre	ēdi	ēsum	*eat*	ĕd-
	essum and estum, rare.				
ĕmo	emĕre	ēmi	emptum	*take, buy*	ĕm-
emptŭrio	empturīre			*wish to buy*	emptŭri-?
eo (see 227)	īre	īvi	ĭtum	*go*	i-
	Perfect -ii in compounds.				
excello (see cello)				*excel*	ex-cel-
expergiscor	expergisci		experrectum	*arouse*	ex-pĕr-rĕg-
	expergĭtum, old.				
exuo	exuĕre	exui	exūtum	*strip off*	exu-
Făcesso	facessĕre	facessīvi	facessītum	*make*	făcess-i-
făcio	facĕre	fēci	factum	*make*	făc-
fallo	fallĕre	fĕfelli	falsum	*deceive*	fall-
farcio	farcīre	farsi	fartum	*stuff*	farc-
făteor	fatēri		fassus	*confess*	făt-
fătisco	fatiscĕre		-fessum	*gape*	făt-
	Also deponent.				
făveo	favēre	fāvi	fautum	*favor*	făv-
-fendo	-fendere	-fendi	-fensum	*strike*	fend-
fĕrio	ferīre			*strike*	fĕri-?
fĕro	ferre	(tŭli)	(lātum)	*carry*	fĕr-
	tŭli and lātum are borrowed from tollo. tĕtŭli is old.				
ferveo / fervo	fervēre / fervĕre	fervi, ferbui		*boil*	ferv-
fīdo	fidĕre		fīsum	*trust*	fīd-
	fīsus sum is used as perfect. See [216], (*g*).				
fīgo	figĕre	fixi	fixum	*fix*	fīg-
	fictus, rare.				
fīo (see 229)	fīĕri		(factus)	*become*	fī-
findo	findĕre	fĭdi	fissum	*cleave*	fīd-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
fingo	fingĕre	finxi	fictum	*form*	fĭg-
flaveo	flavēre			*be yellow*	flav-?
fleo	flēre	flēvi	flētum	*weep*	fle-
flecto	flectĕre	flexi	flexum	*bend*	flect-
-flīgo	-fligĕre	-flixi	-flictum	*strike*	flīg-
fluo	fluĕre	fluxi	fluxum	*flow*	flŭgv-
fŏdio	fodĕre	fōdi	fossum	*dig*	fŏd-

fodīri old.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
foeteo	foetēre			*be fetid*	foet-?
[for] see [235]	fāri		fātum	*speak*	fa-
fŏveo	fovēre	fōvi	fōtum	*cherish*	fŏv-
frango	frangere	frēgi	fractum	*break*	frăg-
frĕmo	fremĕre	fremui	fremĭtum	*roar*	frĕm-
frendo	frendĕre		fressum	*gnash*	frend-

Also frēsum.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
frĭco	frīcāre	fricui	frictum	*rub*	frĭc-

Also fricātum.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
frīgeo	frigēre	frixi		*be cold*	frīg-
frīgo	frigĕre		frictum	*roast*	frīg-
frondeo	frondēre			*leaf*	frond-?
fruor	frui		fructum	*enjoy*	fru-, frug-?

fruĭtus once, fruĭtūrus once.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
fŭgio	fugĕre	fūgi	fugĭtum	*flee*	fŭg-
fulcio	fulcīre	fulsi	fultum	*prop*	fulc-
{ fulgeo / fulgo	{ fulgēre / fulgĕre	fulsi		*shine*	fulg-
fundo	fundĕre	fūdi	fūsum	*pour*	fŭd-
fungor	fungi		functus	*discharge*	fung-
[fuo] (see sum)		fui	fŭtūrus	*be*	fu-
fŭro	furĕre			*rage*	fŭr-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
Gaudeo	gaudēre		gāvīsum	*be glad*	gāvĭd-

gavīsus sum is used as perfect. See [216], (*g*).

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
gĕmo	gemĕre	gemui	gemĭtum	*groan*	gĕm-
gĕro	gerĕre	gessi	gestum	*carry*	gĕs-
gigno	gignĕre	gĕnui	genĭtum	*beget*	gĕn-

gigno for gigĕno. gĕno is old.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
glisco	gliscĕre			*swell*	gli-
glōcio	glocīre			*cluck*	gloci-?
glūbo	glubĕre		gluptum	*peel*	glūb-
grădior	gradi		gressus	*step*	grăd-

In compounds -gredīri is found.

-gruo	-gruĕre	-grui		*?*	gru-
Hăbeo	habēre	habui	habĭtum	*have*	hăb-
haereo	haerēre	haesi	haesum	*stick*	haes-
haurio	haurīre	hausi	haustum	*drain*	haus-
hĕbeo	hebēre			*be blunt*	hĕb-?
hisco	hiscĕre			*yawn*	hi-
hūmeo	humēre			*be moist*	hum-?

-icio (for jacio in compounds).

īco ?	icĕre	īci	ictum	*strike*	īc-
imbuo	imbuĕre	imbui	imbūtum	*imbue*	imbu-
incesso	incessĕre	incessīvi		*attack*	incess-i-
indulgeo	indulgēre	indulsi		*yield*	indulg-

indultum, late.

induo	induĕre	indui	indūtum	*put on*	indu-
ĭneptio	ineptīre			*trifle*	ĭnepti-?
infit (no other form)				*begins*	?
inqvam (see [235])		inqvii		*quoth*	inqvi-?
intellĕgo (see lego)				*understand*	intel-lĕg-
īrascor	irasci		irātus	*be angry*	ira-
Jăceo	jacēre	jacui	jacĭtum	*lie*	jăc-
jăcio	jacĕre	jēci	jactum	*throw*	jăc-
jŭbeo	jubēre	jussi	jussum	*bid*	jŭb-
jungo	jungĕre	junxi	junctum	*yoke*	jung-
jŭvo	juvāre	jūvi	jūtum	*aid*	jŭv-

Also juvātūrus.

Lābor	labi		lapsus	*slip*	lāb-
lăcesso	lacessĕre	lacessīvi	lacessītum	*provoke*	lacess-i-
lacteo	lactēre			*suck*	lact-?
laedo	laedĕre	laesi	laesum	*hurt*	laed-

Compounds weaken ae to ī.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
lambo	lambĕre	lambi		*lick*	lamb-
langveo	langvēre	langvi		*be faint*	langv-
{ lăvo { lăvo	{ lavĕre { lavāre	lāvi	{ lotum { lautum	*wash*	lăv-
	Also lavātum.				
lĕgo	legĕre	lēgi	lectum	*choose*	lĕg-
	Perf. -lexi in dī-lĕgo, intel-lĕgo, neg-lĕgo.				
-leo (see dēleo).					
lĭbet	libēre	libuit	libĭtum	*it pleases*	lĭb-
	Also spelled lŭbet.				
lĭceo	licēre	licui	licĭtum	*be on sale*	lĭc-
lĭceor	licēri		licĭtus	*bid for*	lĭc-
lĭcet	licēre	licuit	licĭtum	*it is allowed*	lĭc-
-lĭcio	-licĕre	-lexi,-licui	-licĭtum	*entice*	lăc-
lingo	lingĕre		linctum	*lick*	ling-
lĭno	linĕre	lēvi, līvi	lĭtum	*smear*	li-
linqvo	linqvĕre	līqvi	-lictum	*leave*	lĭqv-
lĭqveo	liqvēre	licui		*be clear*	lĭqv-
līqvor	liqvi			*melt*	līqv-
līveo	livēre			*be livid*	līv-?
lŏqvor	loqvi		locūtus	*speak*	lŏqv-
lūceo	lucēre	luxi		*beam*	lūc-
lūdo	ludĕre	lūsi	lūsum	*sport*	lūd-
lūgeo	lugēre	luxi		*mourn*	lūg-
luo	luĕre	lui	-lūtum	*pay*	lu-
Măceo	macēre			*be lean*	măc-?
maereo	maerēre			*grieve*	maer-?
mālo	malle	malui (see 225)		*prefer*	ma-vŏl-
mando	mandĕre	mandi	mansum	*chew*	mand-
măneo	manēre	mansi	mansum	*wait*	măn-
	ē-minui also in perfect.				
mĕdeor	medēri			*cure*	mĕd-
mĕmĭni (see [235])				*remember*	măn-
mĕreo	merēre	merui	merĭtum	*earn*	mĕr-
mergo	mergĕre	mersi	mersum	*sink*	merg-
mētior	metīri		mensus	*measure*	met-?
mĕto	metĕre	messui	messum	*mow*	mĕt-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
mĕtuo	metuĕre	metui	metūtus (once)	*fear*	metu-
mĭco	micāre	micui		*glitter*	mĭc-
	-micāvi, -micātum in compounds.				
-mĭniscor	-minisci		-mentus	*call to mind*	măn-
mingo	mingĕre	minxi	mictum		mĭg-
	Pres. also mējo (for mĕg-i-o).				
mĭnuo	minuĕre	minui	minūtum	*lessen*	mĭnu-
misceo	miscēre	miscui	mixtum, mistum	*mix*	misc-
mĭsĕreor	miserēri		miserĭtus	*pity*	mĭsĕr-
	misertus, rare, also rarely an active form misereo.				
mĭsĕret	miserēre	miseruit	miserĭtum	*it pities*	mĭsĕr-
mitto	mittĕre	mīsi	missum	*send*	mitt-
mŏlo	molĕre	molui	molĭtum	*grind*	mŏl-
mŏneo	monēre	monui	monĭtum	*warn*	mŏn-
mordeo	mordēre	mŏmordi	morsum	*bite*	mord-
mŏrior	mori	See [216] (*h*)	(moritūrus)	*die*	mŏr-
	mortuus sum is used as perfect. morīri is old.				
mŏveo	movēre	mōvi	mōtum	*move*	mŏv-
mūceo	mucēre			*be moldy*	mūc-?
mulceo	mulcēre	mulsi	mulsum	*soothe*	mulc-
	Also per-mulctus.				
mulgeo	mulgēre	mulsi		*milk*	mulg-
-mungo	-mungĕre	-munxi	-munctum	*wipe*	mung-
Nanciscor	nancisci		nactus, nanctus	*gain*	năc-
nascor	nasci		nātus	*be born*	na-
	The full stem gna- appears in some compounds.				
nĕco	necāre	{ necāvi { nĕcui	{ necātum { -nectum	*kill*	nĕc-
necto	nectĕre	nexi	nexum	*join*	nect-
neglĕgo (see lego).					
neo	nēre	nēvi	nētum	*spin*	ne-
nĕqveo (see qveo)				*can not*	nĕ-qvi-
nexo	nexĕre	nexui		*tie*	nex-
{ ningit { ningvit	ningĕre	ninxit		*it snows*	{ ning- { ningv-
nītor	niti		nixus, nīsus	*lean*	nict-

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Sup. or Part.		Stem.
-nīveo	-nivēre	-nīvi, -nixi		*wink*	nigv-
nŏceo	nocēre	nocui	nocĭtum	*harm*	nŏc-
nōlo	nolle	nolui	See 225	*be unwilling*	nĕ-vŏl-
nosco	noscere	nōvi	nōtum	*learn*	no-

The full stem **gno-** appears in some compounds. **-gnĭtum** is found in **a-gnitum, co-gnitum.**

nūbo	nubĕre	nupsi	nuptum	*marry*	nūb-
-nuo	-nuĕre	-nui		*nod*	-nu-

ab-nuĭturus once.

Oblīviscor	oblivisci		oblĭtus	*forget*	ob-līv-?
occŭlo	occulĕre	occului	occultum	*conceal*	oc-cŭl-

odi (see 235).

{ -ŏleo	{ -olēre	{ -olēvi	{ -olētum	*grow*	ŏl-? ŏle-?
{ -ŏlesco	{ -olescĕre	{ -olui	{ -olĭtum		

ădolesco has **ad-ultus.**

{ ŏleo	{ olēre	olui		*smell*	ŏl-
{ ŏlo	{ olēre				
ŏportet	oportēre	oportuit		*it is proper*	ŏport-
ordior	ordīri		orsus	*commence*	ord-
ŏrior	orīri	See [216] (*h*)	ortus	*rise*	ŏr-

Also **orĭtūrus.**

[**ŏvo**] defective. See [235].

Păciscor	pacisci	pĕpĭgi	pactum	*bargain*	păc-, păg-
paenĭtet	paenitēre	paenituit		*it repents*	paenĭt-

paenĭtūrum is mentioned by grammarians.

pando	pandĕre	pandi	pansum, passum *open*		pand-
pango	pangĕre	pēgi	pactum, panctum *fasten*		păg-
parco	parcĕre	{ pĕperci { parsi	parsum	*spare*	parc-
pāreo	parēre	parui	parĭtum	*appear*	pār-
părio	parĕre	pĕpĕri	partum	*bring forth*	păr-

Also **parĭtūrus.** Compounds have **-perīre.**

partŭrio	parturīre			*be in labor*	partŭri-
pasco	pascĕre	pāvi	pastum	*feed*	păs-

-pescui in **compesco** and **dispesco.**

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
pătior	pati		passus	*be ır*	păt-
păveo	pavēre	pāvi		*fear*	păv-
pecto	pectĕre	pexi	pexum	*comb*	pect-
pēdo	pedĕre	pĕpēdi			pēd-
pello	pellĕre	pĕpŭli	pulsum	*drive*	pĕl-
pendeo	pendēre	pĕpendi	pensum	*hang .*	pend-
pendo	pendĕre	pĕpendi	pensum	*weigh*	pend-
pergo	pergĕre	perrexi	perrectum	*continue*	pĕr-rĕg-
-pĕrio	-perīre	-perui	-pertum		pĕr-

perītus as an adjective, and in opperītus.

pĕto	petĕre	petīvi	petītum	*seek*	pĕt-i-
pĭget	pigēre	piguit	pigĭtum	*it vexes*	pĭg-
pingo	pingĕre	pinxi	pictum	*paint*	pĭg-
(pinso	(pinsĕre	(pinsui	(pinsitum	*pound*	pīs-
(pīso	(pisĕre	(pinsi	(pistum		

pisi once, pinsībant once.

plăceo	placēre	placui	placĭtum	*please*	plăc-
plango	plangĕre	planxi	planctum	*beat*	plang-
plaudo	plaudere	plausi	plausum	*clap*	plaud-

Most compounds weaken au to ō.

plecto	plectĕre			*strike*	plect-
-plector	-plecti		-plexus	*twine*	plect-
-pleo	-plēre	-plēvi	-plētum	*fill*	ple-
plĭco	plicāre	(-plicui, (-plicāvi	(-plicĭtum, (plicātum	*fold*	plĭc-
pluo	pluĕre	pluit		*rain*	plu-

pluvit often in Livy.

polleo	pollēre			*be strong*	poll-?
pollūceo	pollucēre		polluctum	*offer*	pollūc-
pōno	ponĕre	pŏsui	posĭtum	*place*	pŏ-s-

pono is for po-sino; see sino. posīvi and posi are found, and
    in poetry postus.

posco	poscĕre	pŏposci			posc-

Compounds retain reduplication.

possum	posse	pŏtui See 222		*can*	pŏt-ĕs-
pŏtior	potīri	See [216] (*h*)	potītum	*be master*	pŏti-
pōto	potāre	potāvi	pōtum, potātum	*drink*	pōta-

pōtum seems to belong to a simpler stem, po-.

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
praebeo	praebēre	praebui	praebĭtum	*furnish*	praeb-
prandeo	prandēre	prandi	pransum	*dine*	prand-
⎧ prehendo	prehendĕre	prehendi	prehensum	*seize*	⎧ prehend-
⎨ prendo	prendĕre	prendi	prensum		⎨ prend-
prĕmo	premĕre	pressi	pressum	*press*	prĕm-
prŏfīciscor	proficisci		profectus	*advance*	prŏ-făc-
prōmo	promĕre	prompsi	promptum	*bring out*	prōm-
prūrio	prurīre			*itch*	prūri-?
psallo	psallĕre	psalli		*play*	psall-
pŭdet	pudēre	puduit	pudĭtum	*it shames*	pŭd-
pungo	pungĕre	pŭpŭgi	punctum	*prick*	pŭg-

Compounds have -**punxi**.

Qvaero	qvaerĕre	qvaesīvi	qvaesītum	*seek*	qvaes-i-

qvaeso and **qvaesumus** are old colloquial forms. Compounds weaken **ae** to **ī**.

qvătio	qvatĕre		qvassum	*shake*	qvăt-

Perfect -**cussi** in compounds. See -**cutio**.

qveo (228)	qvīre	qvīvi	qvĭtum	*can*	qvi-
qvĕror	qveri		qvestus	*complain*	qvĕs-
qviesco	qviescĕre	qviēvi	qviētum	*rest*	qvie-
-qvĭnisco	-qviniscĕre	-qvexi		*defile*	qvĭc-

Răbo	rabĕre			*rave*	răb-
rādo	radĕre	rāsi	rāsum	*scrape*	rād-
răpio	rapĕre	rapui	raptum	*seize*	răp-
rāvio		(-rausi)	(rausurus)	*be hoarse*	răv-
rēfert	rēferre	rētŭlit		*it concerns*	rē-fĕr-
rĕgo	regĕre	rexi	rectum	*rule*	rĕg-
rĕnīdeo	renidēre			*glitter*	rĕ-nīd-
reor	rēri		rătus	*think*	ra-
rĕpĕrio	reperīre	reppĕri	repertum	*discover*	rĕ-păr-
rēpo	repĕre	repsi	reptum	*creep*	rēp-
rĕsĭpisco see săpio					rĕ-săp-
rīdeo	ridēre	rīsi	rīsum	*laugh*	rīd-
ringor	ringi			*grin*	rĭg-
rōdo	rodĕre	rōsi	rōsum	*gnaw*	rōd-

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Sup. or Part.		Stem.
rŭdo	rudĕre	rudīvi		*bray*	rŭd-i-
rumpo	rumpĕre	rūpi	ruptum	*break*	rŭp-
ruo	ruĕre	rui	rŭtum	*dash*	ru-

ruĭturus, late.

Saepio	saepīre	saepsi	saeptum	*hedge*	saep-
⎰ salio	⎰ (salīre ?)		⎰ salitum	*salt*	sal-
⎱ sallo	⎱ sallĕre		⎱ salsum		
sălio	salīre	salui			săl-

Also salīvi, rare.

salve, see [235].

| sancio | sancīre | sanxi | sanctum | *hallow* | sanc- |

sancītum, rare.

| săpio | sapĕre | sapīvi | | *be wise* | săp- |

Also perfect re-sipui-.

sarcio	sarcīre	sarsi	sartum	*patch*	sarc-
săario	sarīre	sarui, sarīvi sarītum		*hoe*	săr-, sări-?
sarpo	sarpĕre		sarptum	*trim*	sarp-

sătăgo (= săt ăgo, see ăgo).

scăbo	scabĕre	scăbi		*scratch*	scăb-
scalpo	scalpĕre	scalpsi	scalptum	*scrape*	scalp-
scando	scandĕre	scandi	scansum	*climb*	scand-
scăteo	scatēre			*bubble*	scăt-?
scindo	scindĕre	scĭdi	scissum	*cut*	scĭd-

scĭcĭdi is old.

scisco	sciscĕre	scīvi	scītum	*enact*	sci-
scrībo	scribĕre	scripsi	scriptum	*write*	scrīb-
sculpo	sculpĕre	sculpsi	sculptum	*carve*	sculp-
sĕco	secāre	secui	sectum	*cut*	sĕc-

secāturus, once.

sĕdeo	sedēre	sēdi	sessum	*sit*	sĕd-
sentio	sentīre	sensi	sensum	*think*	sent-
sĕpĕlio	sepelīre	sepelīvi	sepultum	*bury*	sepĕl-
sĕqvor	seqvi		secūtus	*follow*	sĕqv-
sĕro	serĕre	sēvi	sătum	*sow*	sa-
sĕro	serĕre	-serui	-sertum	*put in rows*	sĕr-
serpo	serpĕre	serpsi	serptum	*crawl*	serp-

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
sīdo	sidĕre	sīdi		*settle*	sīd-

sēdi and **sessum** (borrowed from **sĕdeo**) are also found.

singultio	singultīre			*sob*	singulti-?
sĭno	sinĕre	sīvi	sĭtum	*permit*	si-
sisto	sistĕre	stĭti	stătum	*set*	sta-

Compounds keep the reduplication.

sŏleo	solēre		solĭtus	*be wont*	sŏl-

solitus sum is used as perfect; see [216] (*g*).

solvo	solvĕre	solvi	solūtum	*loose*	solv-
⌠ sŏno ⌡ sŏno	⌠ sonāre ⌡ sonĕre	sonui	sonĭtum	*sound*	sŏn-

sonāturus, once.

sorbeo	sorbēre	sorbui		*swallow*	sorb-

Perfect **-sorpsi**, late and rare.

spargo	spargĕre	sparsi	sparsum	*scatter*	sparg-
sperno	spernĕre	sprēvi	sprētum	*despise*	spĕr-, spre-
-spĭcio	-spicĕre	-spexi	-spectum	*look*	spĕc-
splendeo	splendēre			*shine*	splend-?
spondeo	spondēre	spŏpondi	sponsum	*promise*	spond-

de-spŏpondi, old.

spuo	spuĕre	spui	spūtum	*spit*	spu-
sqvāleo	sqvalēre			*be rough*	sqvāl-?
stătuo	statuĕre	statui	statūtum	*set up*	stătu-
sterno	sternĕre	strāvi	strātum	*strew*	stĕr-, stra-
sternuo	sternuĕre	sternui		*sneeze*	sternu-
sterto	stertĕre	stertui		*snore*	stert-
stingvo	stingvĕre	-stinxi	-stinctum	*extinguish*	stingv-
sto	stāre	stĕti	stătum	*stand*	sta-

Also **stāturus**, rare.

strĕpo	strepĕre	strepui	strepĭtum	*make a noise*	strĕp-
⌠ strīdeo ⌡ strīdo	⌠ stridēre ⌡ stridĕre	strīdi		*hiss*	strīd-
stringo	stringĕre	strinxi	strictum	*graze*	strĭg-
struo	struĕre	struxi	structum	*build*	strŭgv-
sūgo	sugĕre	suxi	suctum	*suck*	sūg-
sum see 212	esse	(fui)	(futurus)	*be*	ĕs-

Complete tenses and future participle borrowed from [**fuo**].

PRES. IND.	PRES. INF.	PERF. IND.	SUP. OR PART.		STEM.
sūmo	sumĕre	sumpsi	sumptum	*take*	sūm-
suo	suĕre	sui	sūtum	*sew*	su-
surgo	surgĕre	surrexi	surrectum	*rise*	sur-rĕg-
svādeo	svadēre	svāsi	svāsum	*persuade*	svād-
svesco	svescĕre	svēvi	svētum	*get wont*	sve-
Tābeo	tabēre			*waste*	tāb- ?
tăceo	tacēre	tacui	tacĭtum	*be silent*	tăc-
taedet			taesum	*it wearies*	taed-

tăgo (old form of tango).

tango	tangĕre	tĕtĭgi	tactum	*touch*	tăg-
tĕgo	tegĕre	texi	tectum	*cover*	tĕg-
temno	temnĕre	tempsi	temptum	*despise*	tem-
tendo	tendĕre	tĕtendi	tentum, tensum *stretch*		tend-
tĕneo	tenēre	tenui	tentum	*hold*	tĕn-

tĕtĭni is quoted.

terreo	terrēre	terrui	terrĭtum	*frighten*	terr-
{ tergeo { tergo	{ tergēre { tergĕre	tersi	tersum	*wipe*	terg-
tĕro	terĕre	trīvi	trītum	*rub*	tĕr-, tri-

at-terui, once.

texo	texĕre	texui	textum	*weave*	tex-
{ tingo { tingvo	{ tingĕre { tingvĕre	tinxi	tinctum	*dye*	tingv-
tollo	tollere	(sustŭli)	(sublātum) *lift*		tŏl-, tla-

The simple tŭli and lātum have the sense of fĕro, and the compound forms given are used in the sense of tollo.

tondeo	tondēre	tŏtondi	tonsum	*shear*	tond-
tŏno	tonāre	tonui	tonĭtum	*thunder*	tŏn-

in-tonātus, once.

torqveo	torqvēre	torsi	tortum	*twist*	torqv-
torreo	torrēre	torrui	tostum	*roast*	tors-
traho	trahĕre	traxi	tractum	*drag*	trăh-
trĕmo	tremĕre	tremui		*tremble*	trĕm-
trĭbuo	tribuĕre	tribui	tribūtum	*assign*	trĭbu-
trūdo	trudĕre	trūsi	trūsum	*thrust*	trūd-

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Sup. or Part.		Stem.
{ tueor { tuor	{ tuēri { tui		tūtus, tuītus	*look at*	tu-
tundo	tundĕre	tŭtŭdi	tūsum, tunsum	*thump*	tŭd-
	Also perfect **re-tundi**.				
tūrgeo	turgēre	tursi		*swell*	turg-
Ulciscor	ulcisci		ultus	*avenge*	ulc-
{ ungo { ungvo	{ ungĕre { ungvĕre	unxi	unctum	*anoint*	ungv-
urgeo	urgēre	ursi		*urge*	urg-
ūro	urĕre	ussi	ustum	*burn*	ūs-
ūtor	uti		ūsus	*use*	ūt-
Vādo	vadĕre	-vāsi	-vāsum	*go*	vād-
văleo	valēre	valui	valītum	*be strong*	văl-
vĕgeo	vegēre			*arouse*	vĕg-?
veho	vehĕre	vexi	vectum	*carry*	vĕh-
vello	vellĕre	velli	vulsum	*pluck*	vĕl-
	Perfect also **vulsi**, late.				
vendo	vendĕre	vendĭdi	vendītum	*sell*	ven-d-
vēneo	venīre	venīvi		*to be sold*	vĕn-i-
vĕnio	venīre	vēni	ventum	*come*	vĕn-
vĕreor	verēri		verītus	*fear*	vĕr-
vergo	vergĕre			*incline*	verg-
verro	verrĕre	verri	versum	*brush*	verr-
verto	vertĕre	verti	versum	*turn*	vert-
vescor	vesci			*eat*	vesc-?
vĕto	vetāre	vetui	vetītum	*forbid*	vĕt-
	Also **vetāvi**, rare.				
vĭdeo	vidēre	vīdi	vīsum	*see*	vĭd-
-vĭdo, see **dīvĭdo**.					
vieo	viēre		viētum	*plait*	vie-
	Also **viĕtus**.				

Pres. Ind.	Pres. Inf.	Perf. Ind.	Sup. or Part.		Stem.
vincio	vincīre	vinxi	vinctum	*bind*	vinc-
vinco	vincĕre	vīci	victum	*conquer*	vĭc-
vīso	visĕre	vīsi		*visit*	vīs-
vīvo	vivĕre	vixi	victum	*live*	vĭgv-
vŏlo	velle	volui	see 225	*wish*	vŏl-
volvo	volvĕre	volvi	volūtum	*roll*	volv-
vŏmo	vomĕre	vomui	vomĭtum	*vomit*	vŏm-
vŏveo	vovēre	vōvi	vōtum	*vow*	vŏv-

———◆◇◆———

[*This list contains all words mentioned in the book because of any peculiarity of form or construction.*]

ABBREVIATIONS.

abl. ....*ablative.*	indic...............*indicative.*
acc. ....*accusative.*	inflect...............*inflection.*
assim. ....*assimilation.*	irreg...............*irregular.*
comp. ....*comparison.*	loc...............*locative.*
constr...............*construction.*	pron. ....*pronoun.*
cmpds...... ....*compounds.*	quant. ....*quantity.*
dat. ....*dative.*	redupl. ....*reduplication.*
decl...............*declension.*	semi-dep. ....*semi-deponent.*
def. ....*defective.*	subj. ....*subjunctive.*
gen. ....*genitive.*	vb...............*verb.*
gend. ....*gender.*	w...............*with.*